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Coworker Responses to an Employee's Inflated Self-Views and Level of Entitlement

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Coworker Responses to an Employee's Inflated Self-Views and Level of Entitlement

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Dedication

To my children (Paul, Daven, Ruthie, and Lillie), without whom the journey may have been easier, but surely not as fun. To my grandfather (Bill), whose confidence in me rubbed off a little. And to a beautiful woman who reminds me that we do hard things, not because they are hard, but because in doing hard things we prepare ourselves for the nontrivial difficulties we will face in our service to the Lord.

Coworker Responses to an Employee's
Inflated Self-Views and Level of Entitlement

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Considerable evidence suggests that holding overly positive views of one's own abilities is not only normal but may also be beneficial. Unfortunately, research demonstrating the consequences of holding inflated self-views remains relatively sparse, and research examining the interpersonal consequences of inflated self-views has come up with mixed results. In this dissertation I examine the interpersonal consequences of an employee's inflated self-views. I specifically look at how an employee's self-views influence coworker perceptions of the employee, the decision to share information with the employee, and whether coworkers will choose to help the employee. I find that making a clear distinction between inflated self-views and entitlement can help illustrate why coworkers may respond positively or negatively to a specific employee.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

As tasks have become more complex, group work is becoming a more integral part of many organizations. Employees spend at least part of each day working in teams (Devine, Clayton, Philips, Dunford, & Melner, 1999; Lawler, 1995). As a result, managers must not only be able to direct single employees, but also facilitate the complex social relationships between very different individuals.

Further complicating the managerial role, managers are being forced to work with a different type of employee than in the past. Recent research suggests that the incoming workforce has a substantially higher proportion of individuals with inflated views of their own abilities than in prior generations (Twenge & Foster, 2008; Twenge, Konrath, Foster, Campbell, & Bushman, 2008a, b). Managers must not only recognize this shift, but also be aware of both the opportunities and challenges that come with this new breed of worker. As an example, employees with inflated self-views are often more motivated and persistent in the face of challenges (Jacobs, Prentice-Dunn, & Rogers, 1984; Taylor & Brown 1988, 1994; Waldman, 1994). This can result in higher performance for both themselves and the team as a whole. Because they project themselves as being more confident, intelligent, and entertaining (Paulhus, 1998), employees with inflated self-views may be able to move through the status ranks quicker than their realistic peers (Anderson & Brion, 2010). These employees may also be able to motivate others in ways that most people cannot (Hiller & Hambrick, 2005).

Yet, there are potential costs associated with employees having inflated views of their abilities. For example, self-enhancing employees are less likely to recognize the risks associated with their behaviors (Li & Tang, 2010). Although risk taking may be beneficial in some circumstances, there are times when performance is dependent upon making accurate risk assessments. As the employee gains influence within the organization, his or her inflated self-views may have an even more drastic effect. These employees may be motivated to escalate commitment to unproductive practices, or deprive the team of needed resources, believing that their skills alone will ultimately bring success (Audia, Locke, & Smith 2000; Whyte, Saks, & Hook, 1997; Hayward, Sheperd, Griffin, 2006). Managers may benefit from understanding how an employee's inflated self-views can affect the organization.

MANAGING TEAMS

The quality of a team decision is often dependent upon the comprehensiveness of information used to make the decision. This requires that employees be able to access not only what they personally know, but also the knowledge and expertise of their coworkers. Unfortunately, research has repeatedly demonstrated that groups are inefficient in how they share information (Stasser & Titus, 1987, 2003). Even with significant investments into communication infrastructure, managers may be unable to get team members to share their ideas with one another (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2002). This lack of information sharing can negatively affect a team's ability to make decisions, and may have a lasting effect on performance. A manager must understand the factors that affect information sharing, and be able to foster the types of communication that will lead to effective decisions.

The manager's job isn't over when a decision is made. A team's effectiveness at executing on a decision is dependent not only on each employee doing his or her stated job, but also upon each person's choice to perform discretionary behaviors that benefit others (Organ, 1997; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Citizenship behaviors, such as helping others, have been related to a number of beneficial outcomes such as greater productivity and efficiency, reduced costs, higher customer satisfaction, lower absenteeism and turnover, and better overall performance (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997). In order for an organization to reap these benefits, managers must develop an understanding of the factors that may lead employees to help each other. They can then foster an environment where each employee receives the help and support that they need from their coworkers.

INFLATED SELF-VIEWS AND INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOR IN TEAMS

While much is known about the types of individuals who typically perform these behaviors, intra-individual variations in these behaviors have been largely ignored (Spence, Ferris, Brown, & Heller, 2011). For example, why would the same person choose to help employee X but not employee

Y? Presumably this variation has somewhat to do with characteristics of the receiving employee, yet the relationship between an employee's individual characteristics and the support that they receive on the job has received relatively little attention (Lepine & Van Dyne, 2001a). This dissertation examines the effect that an employee's inflated self-views have on the extent to which he or she receives information and help from coworkers.

Coworkers may choose how to behave toward an employee based upon the judgments that they make about that employee. As such, I also consider the mediating role of competence and warmth judgments in shaping coworker behaviors. Because the judgement process is innately complex, I also identify a second characteristic of the receiving employee, his or her level of entitlement, which may influence how coworkers interpret the employee's inflated self-views. I suggest that these two factors, whether an employee holds inflated self-views and whether the employee demonstrates a high level of entitlement, together provide insight into to a coworker's decision to help or share information with the employee.

The rest of this document will be laid out as follows. In Chapter 2, I describe a number of literatures related to inflated self-views, identifying distinctions in how each literature has defined and addressed this area of research. I then discuss factors contributing to the development of an employee's inflated self-views. The chapter ends with an examination of some known consequences of inflated self-views, as well as identifying a few holes in the literature that this dissertation will specifically address.

In Chapter 3, I develop a theory and specific hypotheses regarding the effects of an employee's inflated self-views on coworker perceptions of the employee and behaviors toward the employee. I begin by discussing two conflicting perspectives for how an employee's inflated self-views may influence coworker perceptions regarding the self-enhancing employee. I then outline how accounting for an employee's level of entitlement may explain differences between the two perspectives. I conclude the chapter by hypothesizing how an employee's inflated self-views and their level of entitlement may interact to influence a number of interpersonal outcomes such as the willingness of coworkers to help and share information with the self-enhancing employee.

Chapters 4 through 7 then describe two successive investigations that tested the proposed theory. The first investigation, conducted in the lab, was a within-subjects manipulation wherein participants interacted with 4 fictitious individuals in a simulated group experiment. Each of the other 4 group members was either high or low on their self-views and high or low on their demonstrated level of entitlement. The second investigation then tested the same theory and hypotheses in a field setting; utilizing undergraduate project teams. An initial survey determined the magnitude of each individual's self-views and entitlement. This was followed by two round robin style questionnaires examining how others responded to and behaved toward the individual.

Lastly, Chapter 8 discusses the general results from the two investigations. I describe how these results contribute to the existing literatures on inflated self-views, organizational citizenship behaviors, and other behavior within teams. I also describe the limitations of these investigations, directions for future research, and some practical implications of my results.

SUMMARY AND CONTRIBUTIONS

This document describes the history of research related to an employee's inflated self-views, while identifying a lack of consensus regarding the positive and negative consequences of inflated self-views in the workplace. A theory is then developed for how an employee's inflated self-views may influence two important coworker behaviors as directed toward the self-enhancing employee. This theory is then tested using two investigations designed to get at the same question from different empirical perspectives.

This dissertation contributes to the literature in a number of ways. First, despite the large body of research examining the causes of an employee's inflated self-views, there is little consensus regarding the social consequences of these self-views in the workplace. The theory proposed in this document may help explain contradictions in the existing literature. Second, while the existing literature has considered some social consequences of an employee's inflated self-views, these discussions have been largely limited to the perceptions that others hold of the employee. This

dissertation goes one step further; arguing that these perceptions have a substantive impact on the employee's ability to function at work. Lastly, although the literatures related to helping and information sharing are filled with explanations for why certain individuals choose to help others or share information within teams, very little is known about the employees receiving assistance. Presumably characteristics of the recipient also play an important role in this exchange relationship, though this perspective is rarely discussed. This dissertation examines how two of the receiving employee's traits may influence coworker behaviors toward the employee.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

As human beings we are inherently bad at making predictions, especially when the predictions relate to our own abilities, our influence over a situation, or when forecasting our chances of success. When forced to make predictions, there is a persistent tendency to hold estimates that are positive, often unrealistically so, and sometimes fly in the face of logical reasoning. There have been many attempts to explain this positivity bias, and demonstrate its consequences for both individuals and organizations. Yet there has been little research examining the effect that inflated perceptions have on interpersonal outcomes.

This literature review will begin with a general definition of positive illusions, one conceptualization of the positivity bias that encompasses inflated self-views. Comparisons will then be made between positive illusions and a number of related constructs from the management and psychology literature. The remainder of the literature review will focus on the determinants and demonstrated consequences of an employee's inflated self-views for both individual and organizational outcomes.

DEFINING POSITIVE ILLUSIONS

The term *positive illusion* refers to the common psychological basis that causes an individual to have interrelated perceptions, at least in part consisting of unrealistically positive self-evaluations, exaggerated perceptions of control or mastery, and unrealistic optimism (Taylor & Armor, 1996; Taylor & Brown, 1988, 1994; Taylor & Gollwitzer, 1995; Taylor, Kemeny, Reed, Bower, & Gruenewald, 2000). While these elevated perceptions apply to both perceptions of oneself and others (Martin, Abramson, & Alloy, 1984), positive illusions are decidedly more evident with relation to the individual's self-view (Taylor & Brown, 1988). As such, this dissertation describes an employee's illusionary beliefs as they refer to an individual's own inflated self-views.

While the term "positive illusion" was first made popular by Taylor and her colleagues, and particularly Taylor and Brown (1988), as a means of describing the underlying psychological

mechanism behind unrealistically elevated perceptions of one's self, one's level of control, and future outcomes, research related to these separate areas has been going on for a long time. Unfortunately, most of this research has focused on the different outcomes that are related to high versus low levels of these constructs. Positive illusions, on the other hand, refer only to what occurs when the perception is unrealistically positive. Many of the factors leading to high levels of these perceptions, do not explain the existence of illusionary perceptions. Furthermore, there are some obvious differences in the potential consequences of holding realistically high versus unrealistically high perceptions.

The first construct related to positive illusions, and the focus of this dissertation, is an individual's *inflated self-evaluations or inflated self-views*, particularly with reference to their own abilities. There are many ways in which an individual can make unrealistically positive self-evaluations. For example, the term *Self-Efficacy* is often used to refer to an individual's belief that they are capable of successfully executing or performing a task (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Although self-efficacy varies depending upon the task at hand, individuals also possess a more stable general self-efficacy that transcends task boundaries (Bandura, 1977). It is unrealistic inflations in this general self-efficacy that are aligned with the construct of positive illusions.

The second component related to positive illusions refers to exaggerated *perceptions of control*. Every individual makes assumptions about who or what controls life's outcomes (Rotter, 1954). People infer their level of control based upon cues related to having control (Langer, 1975; Thompson et al. 1998). Although not typically discussed as such, perceived control is also inherently interpersonal and thus relevant for understanding team outcomes. The more a person believes that they have control over a particular outcome, the less they believe others can influence that same outcome. While everyone has some level of real personal control, there is a common tendency to overestimate how much control actually exists. Individuals with positive illusions are thought to have strong internal perceptions of control, or feel that they have the ability to make their own destiny, even when there is no logical reason for this belief. This inflation in perceived control may be due to temporary factors, for example being in a positive mood may cause someone to feel more in control than is warranted (Abramson, Alloy, & Rosoff, 1981). Situational factors can also influence whether

someone overestimates their degree of control. People infer that they have greater control in a game of chance if they throw the dice rather than if someone else throws the dice for them (Fleming & Darley, 1986; Langer, 1975) even though the odds are the same. This exaggerated sense of control would be a positive illusion.

The third factor related to positive illusions is *Unrealistic Optimism*, or the exaggerated belief that an outcome will be positive (Weinstein, 1980). This factor suggests that an individual's general perspective on the world, not just how they view themselves and their own abilities, may influence important outcomes (Hmieleski & Baron, 2009). While many factors can lead someone to be optimistic, positive illusions cause a level of optimism that is unsupported by reasonable data. A large body of research demonstrates that individuals are overoptimistic in many aspects of their lives. Most people overestimate the likelihood of positive events such as liking their first job and getting a good salary (Weinstein, 1980). At the same time, people underestimate the likelihood of negative events such as having a car accident (Robertson, 1977), having trouble finding a job (Weinstein, 1980), being victimized or getting sick (Perloff & Fetzer, 1986).

Although often discussed separately, inflated self-evaluations, exaggerated perceptions of control, and unrealistic optimism are intimately related concepts. If an individual believes that they have certain skills, then they will likely also perceive a greater level of control where those skills are relevant. When an individual perceives that they have some control over a situation, where little control actually exists, their expectation of personal success is likely to be higher than the objective probability would warrant (Langer, 1975; Crocker, 1982). Positive illusions serve as the psychological connection linking elevated perceptions in these three areas.

RELATED LITERATURES

There are a number of constructs within the psychology and management literature that describe an individual's inflated self-views, often focusing largely on the individual's self-evaluations of their own abilities. The following section highlights these literatures and attempt to differentiate

each of these streams of research from positive illusions. The first three constructs, narcissism, hubris, and core self-evaluations, focus almost exclusively on the personality and dispositional characteristics of the individual. Other work takes a more cognitive approach with the overconfidence literature examining a number of cognitive and meta-cognitive biases, and the self-enhancement literature drawing in a motivational perspective. While all of these research streams are tangentially related to an individual's inflated self-views, the case will be made for why positive illusions is a distinct theoretical area of study and best encapsulates an individual's inflated self-views.

Narcissism

Narcissism, which was originally based on the concepts of self-love and general self-esteem that allow a person to survive in society, can be characterized by an individual's belief's about themselves, how they manage interpersonal relationships, and self-regulatory strategies intended to maintain their self-views (Campbell, Hoffman, Campbell, & Marchisio, 2011; Devries & Miller, 1985). Although narcissism has been examined both as a personality trait and as a psychological disorder, the social-psychology literature typically defines narcissism as a trait normally distributed across the population (Foster & Campbell, 2007), with narcissistic personality disorder occurring only when the trait causes the individual distress of impairment (Campbell et al., 2011). Yet the conception of narcissism as a trait, rather than a disorder, makes it no less important. The prevalence of trait narcissism has increased drastically throughout western society, to a point where some now view narcissism as comparable to obesity in its epidemic nature (Twenge & Campbell, 2009; Twenge et al., 2008a, b).

The most popular measure of trait narcissism comes from the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) containing 40 forced-choice items (Raskin & Terry, 1988). These items, while as a whole define narcissism, can also be broken into several different factors, such as authority, entitlement, exhibitionism, exploitiveness, self-sufficiency, superiority, and vanity (Soyer, Rovenpor, Kopelman, Mullins, & Watson, 2001). Although a few of these factors such as self-sufficiency (e.g. "I am more capable than other people") and superiority (e.g. "I am an extraordinary person") are related

to the individual's inflated self-views, other factors such as authority (e.g. "I like to have authority over other people") and exhibitionism (e.g. "I like to be the center of attention") refer to an individual's interpersonal desires and preference rather than a cognitive state. (see Soyer, Rovenpor, Kopelman, et al, 2001 for a comparison of narcissism sub-scales). It has recently been proposed that many of the outcomes previously related to narcissism are due to two factor clusters; "grandiosity" and "entitlement" (Brown, Budzek, & Tamborski, 2009). Within this framework grandiosity includes intrapersonal factors related feelings of self-importance, while the entitlement factors are more interpersonal.

More recent research on narcissism has emphasized the connection between narcissism and unstable self-esteem in order to explain why narcissism leads to detrimental consequences such as aggression whereas high self-esteem is generally viewed as beneficial (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). In this research narcissism is often defined as consisting of an inflated positive view of the self combined with a self-regulatory strategy to maintain these illusionary self-views (Campbell et al., 2011; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). Researchers have begun to differentiate the high self-esteem captured in narcissism scales, such as the NPI, from high self-esteem experienced by non-narcissists (Tracy, Cheng, Robins, & Trzesniewski, 2009). Unlike individual's typically seen as having high self-esteem, a narcissist's self-esteem may be unstable (Kernis, 2003), or contingent upon receiving positive social feedback (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). While scoring high on explicit measures of self-esteem, narcissists may have lower implicit self-esteem, the divergence causing their self-enhancement strivings (Bosson, Brown, Zeigler-Hill, & Swann, 2003). This theoretical stream most directly differentiates narcissism from positive illusions because it suggests that narcissists may not actually hold inflated self-views, but rather their grandiose behaviors may be a defense against deep-seated negative feelings about the self (Zeigler-Hill, 2006).

Although narcissism has obvious implications within the organizational context, this discussion has been largely anecdotal. When one considers typical examples of narcissists in the workplace, thoughts of Steve Jobs, Donald Trump, and Michael Eisner come to mind, all of whom have been labeled narcissists by the popular press (Campbell et al., 2011; Maccoby, 2007). Yet while each of

these individuals exhibit narcissistic tendencies, they have also been praised for their vision and leadership abilities. When a narcissist is at the helm, companies tend to take more risks and are less likely to change strategies in response to recent objective performance information (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2011). These strategies, while neither inherently good or bad, often lead to increased variance in firm performance (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007). Studies examining the leadership abilities of narcissists at lower levels within the organization are often forced to rely upon coworker evaluations of the narcissist's performance. In these cases accurate predictions can only be made by parsing out the positive traits related to narcissism, such as high self-esteem, from the negatives of manipulativeness and impression management (Paunonen, Lonnqvist, Verkasalo, Leikas, & Nissinen, 2006). Overall it is still unclear whether narcissistic leaders provide a net positive or net negative for their organizations (Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006).

Hubris

Research in strategy, and particularly the upper-echelons tradition, has spent a long time considering the premise that executives vary enough in their characteristics to affect their behaviors and ultimately firm performance (Hambrick & Mason, 1984; Hiller & Hambrick, 2005). The most well known description of inflated self-views in the macro management literature comes in the construct of *hubris,* referring to the CEO's exaggerated pride or arrogance (Hayward & Hambrick, 1997). Hubris, like narcissism, is derived from Greek mythology and has developed a strong, largely negative, connotation within modern society.

Although hubris has been theoretically linked with important individual (Hayward, Shepherd, & Griffin, 2006) and firm behaviors (Hayward & Hambrick, 1997; Roll, 1986), hubris research has suffered from a lack of clear definition, with individual and firm level characteristics often being blurred together (e.g. Hayward & Hambrick, 1997). As a result, this stream of research will likely yield to more refined measures of CEO characteristics (Hiller & Hambrick, 2005).

Hyper Core Self-evaluation

Recognizing that the literature on executive inflated self-views had become convoluted and lacked a theoretically grounded and validated construct for conducting systematic inquiries, Hiller and Hambrick (2005) recently coined the term "*Hyper core self-evaluation*" (hyper-CSE) to address the overlapping portions of the research in executive self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (Hiller & Hambrick, 2005). They suggest that although intuitively useful, constructs such as CEO hubris and CEO narcissism lack rigorous psychological and methodological grounding, and along with terms like overconfidence, are not used consistently in the literature (Hiller & Hambrick, 2005; Moore & Healy, 2008).

A core self-evaluation (CSE) in general is described as a widely held and deeply sourced dispositional trait that determines how we evaluate ourselves and our relationships with the environment (Judge, Bono, Erez, & Locke, 2005; Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002). A hyper-CSE occurs when these perceptions become exaggerated. Although research related to hyper-CSE is still in it's infancy, using the construct of core self-evaluations, may provide more potent and parsimonious predictions of individual behavior and outcomes than do self-esteem, self-efficacy, LOC, or emotional stability when used alone (Hiller & Hambrick, 2005; Judge et al., 2005; Judge et al., 2002). The CSE construct has already been linked with important outcomes such as job and life satisfactions (Judge et al., 2005) and firm entrepreneurial orientation (Simsek, Heavey, & Veiga, 2010), and has been demonstrated as a valid higher order construct in multiple cultural settings (Piccolo, Judge, Takahashi, Watanabe, Locke, 2005).

Although defined differently from positive illusions, the two constructs may address many of the same psychological factors related to inflated self-views but simply from different perspectives. For example, an individual's self-efficacy is highly related to their self-evaluations of ability, and both CSE and positive illusions include an internal locus of control. Furthermore, although hyper-CSE does not explicitly include unrealistic optimism in its definition, Hiller and Hambrick (2005) state that CSE is specifically the portion of LOC that is meant to "capture the degree to which the person believes that his or her actions will generate positive outcomes."

Even so, there are at least two key differences between hyper-CSE and positive illusions, making positive illusions a better descriptor of an individual's inflated self-views. First, by definition an individual's inflated self-views must be illusionary. Each component of positive illusions can be measured relative to some true measure of an individual's abilities, yet the same cannot be said about the components of CSE. Core-self-evaluations include an individual's self-esteem, yet there is no objective way to measure the actual worth of an individual, and no way to say that an individual's self-esteem is illusionary. Second, while inflated self-views by definition refer to how the individual sees him or herself, not all aspects of CSE relate to self-perceptions. Theoretically, emotional stability refers to a measured personality trait rather than the individual's self-perception. Since emotional stability is not a perception, but rather a trait, it's inclusion in CSE makes the construct incompatible with the idea of an individual's inflated self-views.

If nothing else, the literature on hyper-CSE highlights the need for a clear, parsimonious, and validated measure of the central psychological processes behind an employee's inflated perceptions (Hiller & Hambrick, 2005). This work also demonstrates that self-evaluations and perceptions of control may come from a common source, a belief shared with the literature on positive illusions.

Overconfidence

Overconfidence is a relatively broad term used in both the micro and macro literatures referring to an individual's meta-knowledge of the self, or more specifically an excessive certainty in ones own beliefs (Stankov & Crawford, 1996; Russo & Schoemaker, 1992; Peterson & Pitz, 1988; Budescu, Wallsten, & Au, 1997; Lichtenstein & Fischoff, 1978; Zarnoth & Sniezek, 1997). This classic definition aligns closely with the dictionary definition of overconfidence as total certainty or greater certainty than circumstances warrant (wordnetweb.princeton.edu) and is clearly distinct from the earlier definition of positive illusions. There is a distinct difference between making a prediction where the magnitude exceeds reality, and having an exaggerated strength or degree of surety related to that prediction (Bandura, 1977).

While overconfidence is traditionally distinct from an individual's inflated self-views, the recent management literature has started to additionally refer to overconfidence as an overestimation of one's ability, control, or chance of success as overconfidence. This new use of the term "overconfidence" blurs the line between overconfidence and inflated self-views. In an attempt to clarify the overconfidence literature, Moore and Healy (2008) have recently dissected overconfidence into three distinct definitions, overestimation, overplacement, and overprecision depending upon how the construct is measured (Moore & Healy, 2008).

First, Moore and Healy (2008) refer to overconfidence as *overestimation* if an individual's perceptions are being measured relative to some absolute criteria. Because overestimation compares the individual's perceptions to some real value, it may be a good indicator that a person holds inflated self-views. Although there is a temptation to use overestimation and inflated self-views interchangeably, factors other than positive illusions may cause overestimation to occur. For example, an individual may overestimate their chance of success on a task simply because they misunderstood what the task entailed. Furthermore, many "objective" measures of performance are dependent upon a judge's perception of the actor, which can confuse the individual's self-views with observer biases (Kwan, John, Kenny, Bond, & Robins, 2004). It should also be noted that since overestimation is the most difficult type of overconfidence to measure it is relatively underrepresented in the literature.

Second, the term overconfidence is often used when people believe they are better than others or when they overestimate their rank in ability relative to others (Larrick, Burson, & Soll, 2007; Moore & Healy, 2008). This type of belief is often described as the above-average-effect, for example 94% of college professors believe that they do "above average" work (Cross, 1977). Moore and Healy (2008) refer to this type of overconfidence more appropriately as *overplacement* since comparisons are not always made with the mean individual. For example Zenger (1992) found that 42% of engineers in their sample felt that their work quality placed them in the top 5% among their peers (Ehrlinger, Johnson, Banner, Dunning, & Kruger, 2008). The engineers overplaced themselves relative to others even though the comparison level was not the mean or population average.

There are a number of problems with using overplacement as an indicator of an individual's inflated self-views. For example, individuals may develop positively biases perceptions of not only own abilities but also how they view others (Sears, 1983), and some factors that influence the base positivity bias, such as task difficulty, will have different effects on an individual's self-views versus how they see others (Moore & Healy, 2008). Overplacement is also driven largely by asymmetries in the amount of information a person holds about themselves versus the comparison group (Moore & Healy, 2008). As a result, changes in the comparison group, for example from the generic student to a specific person in the project team, may drastically effect perceived placement. While many of the results from the overplacement literature indicate the presence of inflated self-views, it is important to recognize that factors other than an individual's inflated self-views, such as their judgments of the comparison group, ultimately determine overplacement.

Lastly, overconfidence in the classic sense refers to excessive certainty in beliefs, or the belief that a specific statement is the best or most accurate response (Russo & Schoemaker, 1992). Moore and Healy (2008) discuss this concept as *overprecision* because it refers to a second order prediction of accuracy rather than a prediction of ability or an outcome. Unlike the first two constructs, overplacement does not necessarily reflect the existence of inflated self-views, but rather a meta-cognitive illusion or inflation in presumed metaknowledge (Russo & Schoemaker, 1992). If positive illusions are considered as an inflation of beliefs, overprecision is the inflation in perceived accuracy of those beliefs.

A simple example can clarify the distinction between overprecision and inflated self-views. As most people know, the chance of a coin landing either heads or tails is approximately 50%. Yet, an individual with inflated self-views might predict that they can guess how a coin will land 8 times out of 10. Even though they overestimate their ability on this guessing task, if asked how confident they are that they will guess heads or tails correctly 8 times, they may admit that their guess is not very precise at all (about 4% chance of actually guessing correctly 8 times out of 10). On the other hand, someone who does not hold inflated self-views, but has an overprecision bias might estimate that they will guess correctly only 5 times out of 10, but state a very high level of confidence or precision in this

estimate. Yet, in reality the chance of this second individual actually guessing correctly 5 times out of 10 is still only around 25%. Thus while the second person is more accurate in their estimated ability, they are less accurate in their metaknowledge regarding the precision of their estimate.

In summary, both overestimation and overplacement are related to the self-evaluation portion of positive illusions, and this dissertation draws heavily from these literatures in discussing inflated self-views. On the other hand, since many overconfidence studies look exclusively at overprecision, which reflects a different cognitive (or meta-cognitive) mechanism, much of what is found in the overconfidence literature as a whole relates only tangentially to inflated self-views and will not be discussed.

Self-Enhancement

Self-enhancement may be the most well established idea related to inflated self-views. Unfortunately, *Self-Enhancement* is a term used to describe several distinct phenomena that have been extensively convoluted in the literature. In a recent attempt to clarify the self-enhancement literature, Sedikides and Gregg (2008) identified four common usages of the term: as a motive, an ongoing process, an observed effect, and as a personality trait (Sedikides & Gregg, 2008). The "self-enhancement" *motive* refers to the desire to feel superior to some comparison other, and as such feel better about ones self. The motive may cause individuals to practice the *ongoing process* of "self-enhancement", which includes behaviors such as making comparisons to worse others, ignoring negative feedback, or attributing favorable outcomes to ones self and unfavorable outcomes to others. At the level of an *observed effect*, "self-enhancement" refers to the product of the self-enhancement motive and process. This effect is first internal, an uplifting of the individual's psychological state (aka positive illusions) and is later seen in an individual's expressed self-views. Lastly, self-enhancement as a *personality trait* refers to the repetitive and subconscious inclination to create situations where you can feel good about yourself, such as occurs with habitual self-handicapping.

Summary of Related Literatures

There have been a number of constructs developed to explain factors related to an individual's inflate self-views. Traits such as narcissism and hubris have been used as potential explanations for why inflated perceptions exist. Unfortunately these constructs have not been clearly defined. Recent research on hyper core self-evaluations highlight the need for a clear, parsimonious, and validated measure of the psychological processes behind an employee's inflated perceptions (Hiller & Hambrick, 2005) but fail to make the categorical distinction between an individual's dispositions and their perceptions. Other work has taken a more cognitive approach directly examining the causes of perceptual biases. While the overconfidence literature touches on the cognitive biases related to inflated self-views, most of this research focuses on the individual's meta-knowledge, or how they estimate the accuracy of their perceptions rather than why perceptions become inflated. The self-enhancement literature identifies examples of illusionary perceptions, but focuses largely on the motivational factors related to developing these illusions. While both overconfidence and self-enhancement have in a number of circumstances been used to accurately describe inflated self-views, both terms have more familiar definitions that are only tangentially related to an actor's inflated self-views. As a result, I suggest that positive illusions are a uniquely suited construct for understanding the range of antecedents and consequences related to an actor's inflated self-views.

DETERMINANTS OF INFLATED SELF-VIEWS

There are a number of different ways to look at the question of where inflated self-views come from. First, one could consider the evolutionary standpoint, highlighting the adaptive nature of inflated self-views to understand why they would exist at all (McKay & Dennett 2009). Next there is the question of why particular individuals experience inflated self-views to a greater or lesser extent. This perspective includes everything from genetic and parental nurturing differences between individuals (Cesarini, Johannesson, Lictenstein, & Wallace, 2009) to personality traits, medical disorders and the like. It is then important to understand the cognitive biases and motivational factors

that may lead to illusionary beliefs (Kwang & Swann, 2010). Lastly is the question of what conditions, tasks, and situations foster the greatest inflation in an individual's self-views (see Dunning 2005 for review). Each of these questions will be briefly addressed in the following section of the literature review.

Evolutionary Perspective

Inflated self-views may have been evolutionarily bred into our genetic makeup such that over time individuals who held inflated self-views were more likely to survive. There are also numerous psychological benefits to illusionary beliefs such as higher self-esteem (Alicke, 1985), improved mental health (Taylor & Brown, 1988), greater persistence in the face of challenges (Walman, 1994) and at least partial fulfillment of the basic human need for social attachments (Leary & Baumeister, 2000; Taylor & Brown 1988). Individuals with inflated self-views are also better able to withstand diseases (Goleman, 1987; Taylor, 1983) allowing them future opportunities to reproduce. All of the above factors may ultimately lead to an increased defense against mortality or at least minimize the stresses related to thoughts of dying (Pyszczynski, Solomon, Greenberg, Arndt, & Schimel, 2004).

As further evidence of the biological nature of inflated self-views, several specific sites in the brain have been linked with illusionary beliefs (Heatherson, Krendle, Macrae, & Kelley, 2007). Researchers have been able to decrease a participant's level of egotistical self-enhancement by using transcranial magnetic stimulation to manipulate the medial prefrontal cortex, one part of the brain which has been linked with the formation of inflated self-views (Barrios et al., 2008). By identifying the innate biological basis of illusionary beliefs, researchers may be able to demonstrate that inflated self-views are part of who we physically are as human beings.

Individual Differences

Cesarini, Johannesson, Lictenstein, Wallace (2009) used a classic twin design test, with 460 twin pairs, in order to estimate the genetic and environmental antecedents of inflated self-views. They found that genetic factors explained 16–34% of the difference between an individual's perceived and actual rank in cognitive ability on a test of general intelligence, while common environmental

differences explained another 5–11% of the difference. This suggests that both our genetics and early childhood development play a substantial role in the formation of our self-views.

A number of other dispositional factors have been associated with inflated self-views. For example, individuals with a low level of general self-esteem may view themselves as inferior to others, and as a result are less likely to form positive illusions (Taylor & Brown, 1988; Martin, Abramson, & Alloy, 1984; Brown, 1986). Furthermore, seeking to develop self-enhancing views (Sedikides & Gregg, 2008) has been described as independent personality trait.

A number of studies have even shown that there are systematic differences in the self-views held by men versus women (ex. Foster, Campbell, & Twenge, 2003). For example, there is a prevalent belief that the male brain is designed for qualitative cognitions and the female brain is built for verbal cognitions. This belief has historically caused an expectation that male students will perform better at math, and when communicated to male students causes them to experience more positive self-views related to math and science when compared with their female peers (Ehrlinger & Dunning, 2003; Beyer, 1990; Beyer & Dowdon, 1997). Although gender differences related to inflated self-views are likely due more to societal norms than any real cognitive differences, they can drastically influence behavior. Male students, wanting a career where they will be successful are more likely than females to enter scientific fields (Ehrlinger & Dunning, 2003). Similarly, male stockbrokers are more prone to have inflated beliefs than their female peers, a belief that substantially alters their trading behavior (Barber & Odean, 2001).

Lastly, an individual's role within an organization or society may influence the extent to which they develop an inflated self-view. For example, Anderson and Brion (2010) found that that when people occupy high-status roles, others perceive their traits and characteristics more positively than is warranted (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, &U Xu, 2002; Lord, 1985). This halo effect causes them to receive disproportionately positive feedback from others (Ridgeway, Boyle, Kuipers, & Robinson, 1998). If the individual internalizes this overly positive feedback, the feedback may cause them to develop illusionary beliefs related to their abilities. Even separate from external feedback, holding positions of power or a large income can serve as a cognitive cues related to ability or control, again causing

individuals to form inflated self-views (Langer, 1975; Thompson et al., 1998; Fast, Gruenfeld, Silvanathan, Galinsky, 2009; Serin et al. 2010).

Motivational Determinants

There are a number of reasons why individuals may be motivated, be it subconsciously, to develop inflated self-views (Blaine & Crocker, 1993; Leary 2007). Sedikides (1993) examined three motives that people may have when gathering information about themselves 1) self-assessment, the desire to reduce uncertainty by obtaining objective information about the self, 2) self-enhancement, the desire to protect the self from negative information, and 3) self-verification, the desire to verify existing self-views and have consistency between the self-view and feedback. They found that individuals were most likely to seek information that made them look good, suggesting a strong self-enhancement motive. When given the option to either become more accurate in their self-views or to gain information about their own positive traits, people have a tendency toward furthering their positive self-views (Sedikides, 1993).

It is also possible that the self-enhancement motive may itself be caused by multiple underlying motives – for example the desire for communion, coherence, or agency – each of which may lead individuals to develop inflated self-views. First, the communion motive refers to the desire to maintain relationships with specific others (Bowlby, 1969). Individuals may positively adjust their self-views in order to maintain social acceptance (Anderson, Srivastava, Beer, Spataro, & Chatman, 2006). Since positive illusions are related to the development of social connections (Taylor & Brown, 1988), the communion motive may subconsciously lead an individual to develop inflated self-views for the purpose of forming social bonds. Second, the agency motive refers to the desire to feel as if one has mastered an activity or achieved success (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Because individuals with inflated self-views are often viewed as more competent and successful than their peers (Paulhus, 1998), individuals may be motivated to form illusionary beliefs in order to feel successful. Lastly, the coherence motive refers to the need to see consistent patterns in the world (Heine, Proulx, Vohls). If an individual's initial beliefs are positively valanced, which is the case for the majority of the

population, then a coherence motivate may cause them to reinforce these positive beliefs over time until they becomes illusionary. Thus communion, agency, and coherence motives may each lead to the subconscious development of inflated self-views.

Cognitive Determinants

There are a number of cognitive biases in the way people interpret behaviors and outcomes that ultimately may lead to inflated self-views. These biases protect the ego from the unflattering reality (Greenwald, 1980). For example, individuals tend to distort information in order to build a positive self-image (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Nisbet & Ross, 1980). Most people also have a tendency to attribute positive outcomes to themselves and negative outcomes to external circumstances (ex. Bradley, 1978). As a result, even people who do not initially know their ability level will make inferences based upon successes and failures, taking too much credit for their early successes, and as a result developing inflated self-views (Gervais & Odean 2001). Even if someone clearly knows that they do not deserve credit for an early success, for example if they cheated on an initial pretest, the early success may lead to positive illusions regarding subsequent activities (Chance, Norton, Gino, Ariely, forthcoming).

Memories are also faulty, and past events often become distorted to reflect chronic, often positive, self-views (Story, 1998). Positive yet illusionary memories have been shown to influence future repeat actions even more than actual past experience or anticipated outcomes (Greenwald 1980; Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon, Diener, 2003). Furthermore, people will typically accept positive feedback without question, while placing negative feedback under scrutiny (Ditto & Lopez, 1992).

An individual's level of competence related to a given task may also determine the extent to which they will hold illusionary beliefs, such that individuals who lack competence at a given task are unable to accurately make appraisals of their abilities or the situation in general (Kruger & Dunning, 1999, 2002; Kruger & Mueller, 2002; Ehrlinger, Johnson, Banner, Kruger, 2008). Consequently, not only are less competent individuals more likely to hold inflated self-views, but they often lack the ability to eliminate these illusions in the future. Ehrlinger and colleagues (2008) went as far as to give

students financial ($100) and social incentives to see if given the proper motivation students would admit their own incompetence. Instead they found that the effect of competence on the formation of inflated self-views was stronger than any motivation to eliminate these illusions.

Furthermore, individuals tend to look toward themselves rather than others when making judgments about their abilities (Moore & Kim, 2003), potential for a positive outcome (Kruger & Burrus, 2004), or susceptibility to adversity (Windschitl, Kruger, Simms, 2003). This egocentrism has been directly linked to the formation of positive illusions (Weinstein, Lachendro, 1982). Ross and Sicoly (1979) suggest that this effect is due to the availability heuristic, proposing that while people try to give equal weight to their own and others contributions, they simply have more information related to their own performance, motivations, etc. In a related vein, Kruger and Savitsky (2009) suggest an egocentrism whereby people unintentionally ignore information regarding other's contributions to a collaborative task, making it seem to them as if they alone controlled the outcome. Moore & Kim (2003) demonstrate that rather than a completely myopic focus, people are biased toward making attributions toward a focal actor, and that most people will simply default to viewing themselves as the focus actor. It is likely that both egocentrism and focalism work together with both leading people to develop illusionary beliefs (Kruger & Burrus, 2004).

In addition to having more information, people use a different set of information when making judgments about themselves versus others. For example, while people may have information about another person's behaviors, they typically have more precise information about their own rather than others intentions (Jones & Nisbet, 1971; Kruer & Gilovich, 2004). As a result, people are more likely to develop positive illusions about factors where their own intentions play a role when compared to situations where intentions are unknown or irrelevant. For example, because they know their own intentions, employees may hold inflated self-views with regard to their own ability to meet a deadline, but will be less optimistic about a coworker's ability to meet the deadline (Buehler, Griffin, & Ross, 1994, 2002). Employees similarly use idiosyncratic standards for what constitutes high performance, particularly with relation to ambiguous characteristics (Dunning, Meyerowitz, & Holzberg, 1989).

Situational Determinants

Factors related to the context or task can also influence the extent to which someone will hold inflated self-views. Although people have a fundamental desire to evaluate their abilities, they often lack an objective standard against which to compare (Festinger 1954). The less information someone has about a particular task, the more likely they are to hold illusionary beliefs. For example, Simon and Houghton (2003) found that computer executives were more likely to hold positive illusions about their ability to successfully introduce a novel product when compared to incremental product changes. This suggests that a lack of information regarding the task may lead to inflated self-views.

Yet, the more frequent an event or activity is perceived to be may also lead to positive illusions (Weinstein, 1987). Kruger and Savitsky (2009) found that people were more likely to hold inflated views regarding their contribution to a group outcome for frequent rather than infrequent tasks. They examined common tasks performed by married couples, the use of household items by roommates, and a group trivia contest. In each study, individuals were more likely to inflate their involvement or contribution to common rather than uncommon tasks. They further demonstrated that these perceptions were illusionary by showing that the sum of all group member estimates equaled greater than 100% for most of the common tasks (Kruger & Savitsky, 2009).

The valance of a potential outcome may also influence whether an individual will develop inflated self-views. For example, people are more likely to hold positive illusions when there is information about a shared benefit, such as additional wild cards in a poker game than when negative information is presented (Windschitl, Kruger, Simms, 2003) even if the benefit does not help their chances of having a positive outcome. Pronin et al. (2008, study 3) demonstrated that an actor's perceived constraints related to a task may influence the development of inflated self-views. For example, when contributing to a brainstorming session an actor is more likely to develop inflated self-views if they believe they are allowed to repeat ideas than if they believe that their ideas must be original. People tend to be myopically biased with both positive and negative information, yet disregard or discredit negative information.

Individuals may also have idiosyncratic levels of positive illusions depending upon the task. For example, a particular student may experience positive illusions related to their math and science ability, yet hold a realistic self-view when it comes to the languages arts (Ehrlinger & Dunning, 2003). Other research indicates that people are more likely to hold positive illusions related to tasks they perceive to be hard when compared to tasks that they view as being difficult (Larrick et al., 2007). There is also a growing body of research suggesting that the controllability of a task can influence the extent to which people will hold inflated self-views. People are more likely to unrealistically perceive themselves as invulnerable to harm if a hazard is preventable (Weinstein, 1987). In this case, positive illusions are a form of denial that may help the individual avoid experiencing the decline in self-esteem associated with feeling at risk.

Furthermore, where a task is in its lifecycle may determine the extent to which positive illusions are present (Taylor & Gollwitzer, 1995) and when they are most productive or detrimental (Russo & Shoemaker, 1992). Taylor and Gollwitzer (1995) found that when individuals are put into a deliberation mindset, as typically occurs before someone has made a decision to act, they are less prone to experience positive illusions. In contrast, when a person is put into an implementation mindset, positive illusions are exaggerated. They suggest that this effect of mindset provides a more realistic view when initially making decisions, but increased motivation after the decision has been made. Once a decision is made, individuals focus on the positive features of the task and have a positive level of self-aggrandizement, an illusion of control, and unrealistic optimism (Taylor & Gollwitzer, 1995). In other words, individuals will be more likely to experience positive illusions later in a project's lifecycle.

Summary of Determinants of Positive Illusions

There are a number of factors that influence the development of inflated self-views. To some extent, whether a person develops illusionary beliefs is dependant upon factors idiosyncratic to the individual, for example their genetics and parental nurturing (Cesarini, Johannesson, Lictenstein, & Wallace, 2009), their personality (Malmendier & Tate, 2005; Sedikides & Gregg, 2008), or their level

of self-esteem (Taylor & Brown, 1988; Martin, Abramson, & Alloy, 1984). Yet other research suggests that inflated self-views are more apt to changing over time. There is a strong motivation to develop inflated self-views (Sedikides, 1993) even at the expense of accuracy.

Inflated self-views may also be caused by a number of biases in the way we process information. The tendencies to distort information (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Nisbet & Ross, 1980), make personally favorable attributions (ex. Bradley, 1978), over emphasize the self relative to others (Moore & Kim, 2003), and rely on faulty memories (Story, 1998) can all lead to the development of inflated self-views. An individual's level of competence may also limit their ability to make accurate evaluations (Ehrlinger, Johnson, Banner, Kruger, 2008).

Lastly, characteristics of the task may influence the formation of inflated self-views. If an individual has little experience with a task, they may underestimate the task demands, causing them to develop illusionary beliefs (Houghton, 2003). On the other hand, when a task is performed with high frequency, individuals have greater opportunity to make myopic attributions, potentially leading to inflated self-views (Kruger & Savitsky, 2009). People are also more likely to develop inflated self-views for tasks that they perceive to be difficult (Larrick, Burson, Soll, 2007).

CONSEQUENCES OF INFLATED SELF-VIEWS

While the literature is replete with demonstrations of the existence of inflated self-views, and a number of theories explain how and when inflated self-views most occur, the work on the consequences of these illusionary beliefs is still in its infancy (Dunning 2005; Armor & Taylor, 1998; Weinstein & Klein, 1996). This section begins by summarizing the largely beneficial consequences of inflated self-views on individual outcomes, after which it delves into the largely negative organizational and societal outcomes that have been associated with inflated self-views. The section concludes by discussing the mixed consequences of inflated self-views on interpersonal outcomes.

INDIVIDUAL LEVEL OUTCOMES

Benefits to Individual Performance

There are a number of reasons to believe that inflated self-views can help an individual have improved performance (Harrison, Rainer, Hochwarter, & Thompson, 1997). Bandura suggests that one of the primary benefits of having positive beliefs about ones own abilities comes from an individual's increased willingness to take risks. "If self-efficacy beliefs always reflected only what people could do routinely, they would rarely fail but they would not mount the extra effort needed to surpass their ordinary performances." A number of studies have clearly demonstrated how positive illusions increase risk-taking behaviors (e.g. Il &Tang, 2010). As noted by Haselton and Nettle (2006 p.58), as long as the "cost of trying and failing is low relative to the potential benefit of succeeding, then an illusional positive belief is not just better than an illusional negative one, but also better than an unbiased belief…." In other words, positive illusions can help individuals take potentially risky actions that may be necessary in order to have high performance.

Once an individual decides to attempt a task, holding inflated views of their own abilities may further help them to be successful. Inflated self-views related to one's own abilities have been linked with increased task motivation and persistence in the face of challenges (Jacobs, Prentice-Dunn, & Rogers, 1984; Taylor & Brown 1988, 1994; Waldman, 1994) often resulting in higher performance (Cervone & Peake, 1986) or a greater likelihood of goal attainment (Bandura, 1977; Baumeister, Hamilton, & Tice, 1985). Illusionary beliefs about ones ability to control the situation have also been shown to mediate the effect of an individual perceived power on their action-orientation (Fast, Gruenfeld, Silvanathan, Galinsky, 2009). Positive conceptions of the self have been associated with working harder and longer on tasks (Felson, 1984) and even if people are not able to meet their own expectations, those who overestimate their abilities often perform better than those with self–doubt (Wright 2000).

In some cases an individual's performance is measured by how the individual is perceived by their peers or supervisors, for example the results of a performance evaluation. When an individual's true ability is unclear, others are forced to make judgments based upon superficial cues such as the

individual's nonverbal behavior, attire, style of speaking, or physical characteristics (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009; Elsbach & Kramer, 2003; Anderson & Brion, 2010). Individuals with inflated self-views typically project themselves as being more confident, intelligent, and entertaining when compared with their peers (Paulhaus 1998). These cues may be easily recognizable, such as the way an individual talks and behaves, or as unobtrusive as the individual's choice of clothing (Back, Schmukle, & Egloff, 2010; Vazire, Naumann, Rentfrow, & Gosling, 2008). Because inflated self-views are projected through confidence cues, an individual's own illusionary beliefs may cause others to believe that they are more competent and of higher status (Anderson & Brion, 2010). As a result, individuals who hold inflated self-views often become more influential in their groups independent of the accuracy of those beliefs (Zarnoth, Snlezek, 1997).

Benefits to Individual Health

One of the most striking effects that positive illusions have on individuals is related to their physical and mental health. Although the health benefits may at first seem irrelevant to the management context, recognizing how positive illusions influence a persons health related behaviors can assist in building an understanding of how inflated self-views affect individual motivation and fortitude in the face of challenges. Additionally, while an employee's ability to overcome challenges is obviously important for businesses, their overall physical health may also affect their level of productivity.

Taylor and colleagues have outlined a number of reasons why inflated self-views may be beneficial for our physical health. They suggest that positive illusions lead to better emotional states and positivity, in turn leading to beneficial physiological changes (Taylor, Kemeny, Reed, Bower, Gruenwald 2000). Positive illusions have been beneficially associated with lower levels of depression, less anxiety, greater social adjustment, and the formation of positive relationships with others (Taylor, Lerner, Sherman, Sage & McDowell, 2003b; Kurt & Paulhus, 2008; Brendgen, Vitaro, Turgeon, Poulin, & Wanner, 2004). In addition, individuals with inflated self-views experience more positive affect than their peers (Robins & Beer 2001), tend to be happier than their peers (Taylor & Brown,

1988; see also Fiske & Taylor, 1991), and experience less anxiety and depression (Taylor, Lerner, Sherman, Sage, & McDowell, 2003). When expressed, these factors can lead individuals with inflated self-views to form better social relationships (Taylor & Brown 1988), which they can use as support to get through times of high stress (Taylor & Brown 1994).

In addition to the consequences related to a person's emotional state, patients who have inflated views about their ability to stave off a disease, for example the progression of the AIDS virus, also have a motivation toward action and are more persistent in practicing good health habits (Taylor, Kemeny, Aspinwall, Schneider, Rodriguez, and Herbert 1992). In studies of HIV-positive and AIDS patients, those individuals who were overly optimistic about the prospective course of their illness experienced a slower progression of the disease (Reed, Kemeny, Taylor, & Visscher 1999) and typically lived 9 months longer than patients with realistic views (Reed, Kemeny, Taylor, Wang & Visscher 1994) presumably because they were more diligent in following their treatment regime. Similar health benefits have been seen for a number of different medical conditions. Surgical patients who deny the risks of their surgery have been found to suffer fewer complications and are discharged more quickly (Goleman, 1987). Taylor (1983) found that many women with breast cancer hold an illusionary belief that they can personally control their cancer and keep it from coming back. Women who cope with breast cancer through this type of denial strategy are not only less likely to suffer from a recurrence (Dean & Surtees 1989), but also show better psychological adjustment after the fact (Taylor, Lichtman, & Wood, 1984).

Other studies have demonstrated that illusionary beliefs help individuals deal with stressful situations. When given stress inducing exercises, Taylor, Lerner, Sherman, Sage, & McDowell (2003) found that positive illusions were associated with lower cardiovascular recovery and lower baseline cortisol levels. Furthermore, individuals with positive illusions exhibited less physiological stress as measured by heart rate, blood pressure, and cortisol production. If an individual has suffered a traumatic event, such as the civil war in Bosnia-Herzegovina or whose spouse had died a violent death, then those individuals who exhibited positive illusions are better able to cope with the situation and showed fewer symptoms related to post-traumatic stress disorder (Bonanno, Field, Kovacevic, &

Kaltman, 2002). These studies suggest that holding inflated self-views may be particularly beneficial in that they help us cope with or recover from problems.

Summary of Individual Benefits

There are a number of reasons why holding inflated self-views may be beneficial for both individual performance and health. Inflated self-views may cause people to develop a positive emotional state, and others see individuals with inflated self-views as happier and more confident than their peers. This has a halo effect that can influence subjective measures of performance. It also increases the likelihood that they will form the supportive relationships necessary to recover from stressful situations and major health problems. Inflated self-views also lead to a decreased perception of risk. Since it is often necessary to take risks in order to achieve high performance, not recognizing the full extent of the risk involved increases the likelihood that someone will act. Inflated self-views also have a direct effect on motivation and persistence, leading individuals to continue to take actions even once a decision has been made. This is especially important for an individual's health where actions, such as being diligent with a medical regime, can directly affect recovery. Lastly, an individual's self-views have a physical effect on the human body's ability to cope with stress. As a result, positive illusions are thought to be particularly beneficial when dealing with stressful situations.

Detriments to Individual Performance

Inflated self-views are not always beneficial to individuals. Bandura (1989 p.1177) suggests that, "optimistic self-appraisals of capability that are not unduly disparate from what is possible can be advantageous, whereas veridical judgments can be self-limiting." Some research suggests that individuals sometimes hold inflated views of their abilities that cannot be objectively possible (Dunning, Meyerowitz, & Holzberg, 1989). In such cases the individual's inflated self-views may backfire, becoming detrimental to their performance and even health.

Inflated self-views decrease an individual's recognition of risk. While risk taking may be beneficial in some circumstances, there are times when performance is dependant upon making correct risk appraisals. For example, financial dealers who demonstrate illusionary beliefs may take

unsubstantiated risks, often resulting in poorer performance both objectively and in terms of manager evaluations (Fenton-O'Creevy, Nicholson, Soane, & Willman, 2003). Young drivers have a similar problem, where inflated self-views may cause them to take more risks leading to higher accident rates (Deery, 1999). Inflated self-views have also been associated with making sloppy errors (Vancouver, Thompson, Tischner, & Putka, 2002) which may also diminish overall performance.

As stated earlier, inflated belief's may have the effect of motivating individuals to take action (Fast, Gruenfeld, Silvanathan, Galinsky, 2009), and whether the illusions are beneficial or detrimental depends largely upon the associated behavior. For example, illusionary beliefs may lead someone to take a largely positive action such as getting married (Weinstein, 1980) or may lead to negative behaviors such as gambling (Carroll & Huxley, 1994; Toneatto, 1999; Gibson & Sanbonmatsu, 2004). In looking at positive illusions in children, Brendgen et al. (2004) found that because inflated self-views lead to a propensity to act, such beliefs could lead children who are already predisposed to aggression to behave even more violently. Furthermore, because inflated self-views lead to increased persistence, individuals with inflated self-views are often reluctant to admit when they are ignorant on a specific topic (Bradley 1981), and may continue on problems that are unsolveable (Feather, 1961). As a result, whether the inflated self-views are beneficial is thus somewhat dependent upon the task.

Lastly, while inflated self-views have the initial tendency of motivating individuals, effort may diminish if the illusion is not maintained. From this perspective, positive illusions may be best only in small doses (Dunning 2005; Baumeister, 1990; Taylor & Brown, 1994) because the efforts associated with moderate levels of illusions are more likely to be maintained than efforts associated with extreme illusions. As an example, smokers who moderately overestimate their ability to quit are the most persistent with their efforts and as a result are more successful than both those with realistic pessimism and those with extreme inflated self-views (Haaga & Stewart, 1992). Similarly, students who initially hold inflated views of their abilities tend to become less engaged with the academic context, viewing grades as less important over time (Robins & Beer 2001). Thus in the long-term, individuals with extremely inflated self-views may become less rather than more motivated, resulting in a possible decline in performance.

Detriments to Individual Health

Inflated self-views can also be detrimental to an individual's long-term health. For example, because an individual's inflated self-views lead to persistence along a determined course of action, these illusionary beliefs can cause individuals to continue unhealthy behaviors. Individuals who have illusions regarding their physical health are also less likely to recognize risk and as a result pay less attention to health related warning materials (Radcliffe & Klein, 2002; Menon, Block & Ramanathan, 2002), ignore the need to control their eating habits (O'Brien, Fries, & Bowen, 2000), and even refuse to take medicine that they see as unnecessary (Van Putten, Crumpton, & Yale, 1976). Overall, inflated self-views may undermine an individual's interest in reducing health risks by decreasing their level of worry (Weinstein, 1982).

Summary of Individual Detriments

The above literatures demonstrate that inflated self-views have a generally beneficial effect on the individual in question. Inflated self-views lead to increased positive affect, which may help foster a support network or generally improve perceptions of the individual. At the same time, these illusions may cause physical changes that can help the individual cope with stress. Inflated self-views increase the individual's propensity toward action by decreasing the perception of risk, and also motivate greater persistence toward pre-established goals. Unfortunately, this increased propensity toward action is not always beneficial, as it may also lead to persistence in negative behaviors.

ORGANIZATIONAL OUTCOMES

The next section describes some of the research examining the effect that inflated self-views can have on organizations and society in general. There are a number of rich theories describing how a leader's inflated self-views affect organizational level performance, particularly in the context of merger and acquisitions activities and new venture formation (see Finkelstein, Hambrick, & Canella, 2009 for review). These literatures have typically examined how a leader's self-views influence

decision-making within the firm, while focusing almost exclusively on the negative consequences of a leader having an exaggerated view of their own abilities or control (Bollaert & Petit, 2010).

Organizational Performance

Roll (1986) first integrated inflated self-views into the macro literature when he described a "hubris theory" for why, after the announcement of a corporate takeover, an acquiring company generally has a decline in stock value while the target company's stock increases. According to this theory, CEOs have a tendency to be overoptimistic about the synergies that will occur following a merger as well as having exaggerated beliefs about their own abilities and control (Roll, 1986). As a result, CEOs with the greatest illusions are more likely to push for mergers that will end up damaging the price of their company's stock (Malmendier & Tate, 2005).

By measuring hubris in terms of 1) recent firm performance, 2) media attention directed at the CEO, and 3) the CEO's relative pay, Hayward and Hambrick (1997) empirically linked CEO hubris with the premiums their companies paid when making acquisitions. Although this initial measure of hubris is far from a clear indicator of a CEO's inflated self-views, other studies have more directly examined the link between CEO illusions and firm behaviors by focusing on mechanisms such as the increased propensity to take risks (Il & Tang, 2010). Furthermore, the link between CEO self-views and firm level indicators, such as company performance and media attention, does have some merit. When a company performs well or the CEO receives positive media attention, they often internalize the success feeling that it was due to their own abilities. This internalization may cause the CEO to develop inflated self-views. As the magnitude of a CEO's self-views increase, so does the likelihood that they will be part of riskier and potentially less successful actions in the future (Billett & Qian 2008)(Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007).

The entrepreneurship literature, which is often concerned with the effect of entrepreneur characteristics on organizational performance, has also found a number of relationships between the founder's inflated self-views and both venture formation and performance. In terms of venture formation, entrepreneurs are and must be systematically more optimistic than the average individual

otherwise they would not be willing to start a new business with so little evidence suggesting that they will be successful (DeMeza & Southey, 1996). A number of studies have shown the gap in beliefs that exists between entrepreneurs and other people. Entrepreneurs express high levels of optimism regardless of their actual experience (Cooper, Woo, & Kunkelberg, 1988), and overemphasize the control they have over firm performance (Simon, Houghton, & Aquino, 2000). Furthermore, venture founders have more biased perceptions of their abilities when compared with both the average person as well as typical mid-level managers (Busenitz & Barney, 1997).

After the venture is formed however, inflated self-views may be a detriment to how decisions are made within the firm. The entrepreneur's inflated self-views affect persistence, and can give a perception that they have the resources needed in order to start a new venture even when this isn't the case (Cialdini, 1998) potentially dooming the venture from inception. The founder's inflated self-views may also influence how a firm allocates, attains, and uses resources often depriving new ventures of needed resources and increasing the likelihood of venture failure (Hayward, Sheperd, Griffin, 2006). Founders who have illusions regarding their current strategy are also likely to stick to their strategy longer than they should when economic conditions change (Audia, Locke, & Smith, 2000) and may be motivated to escalate commitment to unproductive ventures or practices (Audia, Locke, & Smith 2000; Whyte, Saks, & Hook, 1997).

Decision-Making

Recent work has examined how a CEO's illusionary beliefs can affect organizational decisions. Il and Tang (2010) conducted a survey of over 5000 CEOs in China and found that a CEO's "hubris" influenced the firm's strategy. By measuring examining the CEO's perception of performance compared with the firm's actual performance relative to the industry average, they were able to predict a firm's general propensity for taking risks. If the CEO held an inflated view of how well they were doing, the firm was more likely to take risks. This research also found that the effect of the CEO's inflated perceptions was moderated by CEO discretion, such that CEO illusions had a larger effect on

risk taking behavior in small firms or firms in munificent and complex industries where CEOs are typically given larger amounts of discretion.

Although an individual's inflated self-views are associated with increased risk taking, they are not related to an increased desire to take actions that are perceived to be risky (Sitkin & Pablo, 1992). Instead, individuals who are blinded by their illusions perceive less risk, and this lowered perception of risk is what allows them to take risky actions such as starting a new business venture (Simon, Houghton, Aquino, 2000). In other words, entrepreneurs do not necessarily like risk, they simply perceive less risk than others. Malmendier and Tate (2003) considered a CEO to have illusionary beliefs of future firm performance if they decided not to exercise stock options that were "in the money" or if they invested excessively in their own companies. They found that CEOs with such beliefs were less likely to distribute dividends to investors, but rather invested the money in new projects. These CEOs presumably felt that it was less risky to keep the money within the company, where their superior abilities could manage it, rather than giving back to shareholders.

Summary

Inflated self-views have a number of different consequences when it comes to firm level outcomes. New ventures are more likely to be formed when the potential entrepreneur has inflated beliefs about their abilities, presumably because these illusions are related to an increased propensity to take risks. Unfortunately, after a firm is in existence these same illusions may blind the CEO from potential risks, while motivating them to be persistent in an outmoded strategy. It is this misguided persistence that likely causes the detrimental organizational outcomes highlighted in existing literatures.

SOCIETAL OUTCOMES

There are at least two ways in which inflated self-views can impact broader society as a whole. First, when a leader in society holds inflated self-views, their perceptions influence how they make decisions and which courses of action they decide to follow. Leaders with inflated self-views will

likely have a greater propensity toward risky action, and may be motivated to persist in their existing strategies. Ironically the same illusions, that when communicated through status, power, and control cues are able to put people into positions of power (Anderson & Brion, 2010), may also be credited with societal upheavals and wars (Howard 1983). Furthermore, since actual competence is often negatively related to holding inflated self-views (Ehrlinger, Johnson, Banner, Dunning, Kruger, 2008) those individual's most competent to lead society, may be too aware of their own failings to even run for political office, leaving such endeavors for the less competent but more confident to fill. Overall the selection of and decisions by leaders with inflated self-views may be detrimental to broader society.

The second way that inflated self-views influence society has to do with how cultural norms can lead to imbalanced beliefs between groups. For example, Dunning (2005) highlights how cultural norms related to science and math abilities, have resulted in male students experiencing inflated self-views for math and science more readily than their female counterparts (Ehrlinger & Dunning, 2003; Beyer, 1990; Beyer & Dowdon, 1997). This imbalance continues to persist even though girls tend to outperform boys in math and science at the elementary school level (Eccles, 1987). Because people are typically motivated to participate in activities where they expect to perform well, this disparity serves not only as a potential explanation for why many science-based careers have historically been male dominated, but also as a demonstration of how illusionary beliefs about one's own ability once aggregated can affect society as a whole (Ehrlinger & Dunning, 2003).

INTERPERSONAL OUTCOMES

This section addresses the effects of an individual's inflated self-views on interpersonal outcomes. Although relatively little has been done to examine the effect of inflated self-views on the interaction within groups, there are a few studies that warrant mention. Yet, it is unclear whether such beliefs are beneficial or detrimental in a group context, and conflicting findings suggest that further

research is needed in order to understand the mechanisms underlying the interpersonal consequences of inflated self-views.

Paulhus (1998) put students into brief 20 minute discussion groups and found that participants who held inflated self-views were perceived to be more confident, entertaining, and intelligent than other members of the group. These beneficial perceptions are likely due to the expression of positive affect that is often associated with inflated self-views. Unfortunately, as others become more aware of the individual's true nature these same group members may end up being seen as arrogant, bragging, hostile, defensive, and psychologically maladjusted (Paulhus, 1998; John & Robins, 1994). As a result, individuals with inflated self-views may be perceived to be less socially skilled, more hostile, thin-skinned, anxious, and fearful (Colvin, Block, & Funder, 1995).

Another potential consequence of inflated self-views involves feelings of superiority. While inflated self-views cause people to be more altruistic, these same illusions may cause them to judge others for not doing likewise. If an individual believes that they would act honorably when their character is tested, it may lead them to judge others too harshly when observing the same test of character (Dunning 2005; Alicke 1993). On the other hand, a number of studies have demonstrated that illusionary beliefs may transfer within a group to which an individual belongs. Epley and Dunning (2000) found that while students overestimate their own altruistic tendencies they also, albeit to a lesser extent, overestimate the altruism of their classmates. As a result, inflated self-views may cause people to actually think better than is warranted about others in their group.

Individuals with inflated self-views are also thought to be able to motivate others in ways that most people cannot (Hiller & Hambrick, 2005). Since motivation is one of the primary mechanisms through which en employee's self-views affect individual performance, if that motivation can be transferred to others with a group, it would be highly beneficial to group performance. At the same time, employees with inflated self-views often presume that they have contributed more than their fair share to a group outcome, which may decrease their desire to continue working with the group in the future (Kruger & Savitsky, 2009). If expressed, this credit taking could cause decreased perceptions of fairness, resulting in the demotivation of others.

Inflated self-views have been correlated with narcissistic personalities, and there is a body of research linking narcissism with interpersonal difficulties (Given-Wilson, McIlwain, & Warburton, 2011). For example, when a narcissistic individual receives feedback indicating that their self-views were incorrect, they may respond to their threatened ego with hostility (Baumeister, Bushman, Cambell 2000). It has been similarly suggested that inflated self-views are linked with the use of intimidation tactics and engagement in competitive activities (Camerer & Lovallo, 1999; Moore & Kim 2003). Such hostile environments would almost definitely be detrimental to group functioning.

Other research indicates that an employee's inflated self-views can influence the dynamics within a group in a way that is inherently neither beneficial nor detrimental. For example, the more confident a leader is about his or her own opinions, the less information they will choose to share with others (Vidal & Moller, 2007). Individuals with inflated self-views may assume that others hold the same opinion as them (Marks & Miller, 1985, 1987) and may be less likely to listen to the advice of others (Gino & Moore, 2007).

In a series of three studies, Anderson and Brion (2010) found that individual's who held inflated self-views with regard to their own relative ability were perceived to be more competent than their peers and as a result received higher status in their groups. In a longitudinal study they additionally found that the status achieved due to an individual's initial self-views endured over time (Anderson & Brion, 2010). As a result, individuals who hold inflated self-views may have a greater influence on group decisions when compared with less confident group members (Zarnoth & Sniezek, 1997).

SUMMARY

There are a number of consequences related to inflated self-views that form a consistent pattern across all of the literature discussed. First, inflated self-views are related to an increased propensity to take action. This is likely related to a decline in the individual's recognition of risk. An increase in action can be good or bad depending upon the situation and task.

Second, inflated self-views are associated with increased motivation, determination, and persistence. This increase in motivation can be highly beneficial when coping with challenges, or detrimental when there is a need to change direction and reconsider earlier decisions. This suggests that whether an employee's inflated self-views benefit performance may be influenced by whether the task itself requires complex decision-making or is largely focused on implementation.

Third, inflated self-views have been associated with beneficial emotional states and positive affect, which can influence perceptions of the individual and ultimately the social relationships they are able to establish. Inflated self-views also have a positive effect on perceptions of an individual's competence. Even so, there have been mixed results in terms of how inflated self-views affect interpersonal factors within the group, indicating a need to understand factors that may moderate the influence of inflated self-views on interpersonal outcomes. In short, the verdict is still out on whether inflated self-views are beneficial or detrimental to the interpersonal relations within groups, suggesting a practical and theoretically important area within which to expand the literature.

Chapter 3: Theory Development and Hypotheses

As organizational tasks are often becoming too complex for a single person to complete, most employees are spending at least part of their day working with coworkers in a team context (Devine et al., 1999; Lawler, 1995). This has led to increased attention toward those factors that affect group behaviors (Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Stewart, 2010), such as how information is shared and the extent to which group members help each other. While these streams of research have identified many characteristics of the acting group member that influence their choice of behavior, less is known about how the receiving employee influences the extent to which they receive information and help. In this section of the paper I make specific hypotheses about how a focal employee's inflated self-views can influence coworker behaviors toward the employee.

INFLATED SELF-VIEWS AND COWORKER REACTIONS

Coworkers choose how to behave toward a focal employee based upon the judgments that they make about the employee, for example the extent to which they like the employee or see them as competent (Fiske, Cuddy, & Glick, 2007). Although coworkers may accumulate information about the employee from a number of sources, one salient source of information is the employee's own behaviors and self-expression (Jones & Shrauger, 1970). In associating with other people, individuals often communicate, either implicitly or explicitly, information that indicates their own self-views (Jones & Shrauger, 1970). This communication can occur regardless of whether the individual is critical of their own abilities or has a grandiose self-view (Powers & Zuroff, 1988). As an employee expresses their self-views, coworkers will use this information as part of their evaluation process.

Individuals are inherently bad at making predictions, especially when the predictions relate to their own abilities, their influence over a situation, or their chances of success (Taylor & Brown, 1988). There is a persistent tendency to make personal estimates that are unrealistically positive and often fly in the face of logical reasoning (Dunning, 1995; Dunning, Johnson, Ehrlinger, & Kruger, 2003; Taylor & Brown, 1988; Waldman, 1994). To explain the preponderance of evidence that

normal people often hold inflated self-views, Taylor and Brown (1988) theorized a cognitive adaptation model, suggesting that holding unrealistically positive self-views are often necessary for individuals to benefit from adverse life events. Illusionary self-views allow the individual to overcome failure without becoming depressed (Taylor & Brown, 1988). This may explain why inflated self-views are both common in the general population and potentially necessary for individuals attempting to perform jobs with a high rate of failure (deMeza & Southey, 1996; Simon, Houghton, & Aquino, 2000).

Yet despite the predominance of research demonstrating the existence of inflated self-views (Sedikides & Gregg, 2008), it is still unclear how others behave toward self-enhancing employees and whether an employee's inflated self-views will have beneficial or detrimental consequences for the employee (Paulhus, 1998). Two lines of research offer preliminary, though somewhat conflicting, explanations for how inflated self-views may influence a coworker's ultimate judgments of and behaviors toward an employee. The first line of research suggests that coworkers use highly visible markers about the employee when evaluating him or her. Individuals with inflated self-views tend to be happier, more optimistic, and have a greater capacity to care for others when compared with their more realistic peers (Robins & Beer, 2001; Taylor & Brown, 1988). Individuals with inflated self-views are also more socially adjusted and lower in social anxiety, which may cause them to form more positive relationships with others (Kurt & Paulhus, 2008; Brendgen, Vitaro, Turgeon, Poulin, & Wanner, 2004; Taylor & Brown 1988). If coworkers take cues from an employee's prior relationships, then employees with inflated self-views may be seen as more likeable than their realistic peers. Furthermore coworkers may simply enjoy being associated with employees who are happy and optimistic, and may judge a self-enhancing employee more favorably than their realistic peers.

Individuals with inflated self-views are also more confident, motivated, creative, and persistent when it comes to performing tasks at work (Taylor & Brown, 1988). All of these behaviors represent the broader tendency for individuals with inflated self-views to take action (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006). Because proactive behaviors often lead to greater performance, these behaviors may be interpreted as indicators of an employee's competence. Furthermore, if the employee believes that he

or she is competent, this belief may be directly communicated to others (Jones & Shrauger, 1970). The employee may disclose positive information about themselves or directly boast about their abilities (Miller, Cooke, Tsang, & Morgan, 1992). If coworkers accept the employee's behaviors and self-presentation as indications of their competence, then the employee's own inflated self-views may cause others to develop favorable impressions of the self-enhancing employee's competence (Taylor & Brown, 1988, 1994).

A second line of research suggests that coworkers are more discriminating in how they use an employee's behaviors when making judgments of the employee. This research suggests that individuals with inflated self-views display self-promoting behaviors that imply a lack of concern for the well being of others (Paulhus, 1998). Individuals with inflated self-views may a) promote themselves at the expense of others around them (Campbell, Bush, Brunell, & Shelton, 2005), b) ignore feedback from others (Taylor & Armor, 1996), and c) become aggressive toward others (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). All of these behaviors may compel their coworkers to question the self-enhancing employee's claims regarding their abilities and modify their judgments of the employee (Norton, Frost, & Ariely, 2007).

Paulhus (1998) suggests that during the early stages of a relationship, coworkers may be unable to correctly categorize an employee's behavior, for example as either self-disclosure versus self-promotion, and as a result may not question the employee's intentions (Miller et al., 1992; Paulhus, 1998). Yet as relationships with the self-enhancing employee mature, coworkers may gain additional information which can modify the overall impressions that they have of the employee (Nisbett, Zukier, & Lemley, 1981). This line of research suggests that when an employee has an inflated self-view, this new information will include the recognition that the employee lacks concern for the well being of others, causing coworkers to question the underlying motives behind the employee's behavior (Jones & Shrauger, 1970; Norton et al., 2007; Paulhus, 1998; Robins & Beer, 2001). When adjusting their judgments, coworkers may overcompensate and punish the employee for discrepancies between their portrayed self-views and reality (Jones & Shrauger, 1970; Wojciszke, Brycz, & Borkenau, 1993). In

this way, an employee's inflated self-views may elicit generally unfavorable impressions of the employee (Colvin, Funder, & Block, 1995; Paulhus, 1998; Robins & Beer, 2001).

Separating Inflated Self-Views from Entitlement

The inconsistency in arguments between the two lines of research may be due, in part, to assumptions about how inflated self-views are associated with an individual's level of entitlement. The first line of research suggests that individuals with inflated self-views have a greater capacity to care for others when compared with their more realistic peers (Taylor & Brown, 1988). Presumably this ability to care for others is at least somewhat related to a willingness to look beyond one's own desires. The second stream of research, on the other hand, assumes that inflated self-views lead individuals to be more focused on their own goals while ignoring the well being of others (Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004a; Paulhus, 1998).

One possible explanation for this confusion is that early research on inflated self-views did not make a clear theoretical distinction between an individual's inflated self-views and interpersonal judgments. As a result, researchers utilized ambiguous operationalizations that often combined an individual's inflated self-view with other traits, dispositions, or cognitions (Colvin et al., 1995; Kwan et al., 2004; Paulhus, Harms, Bruce, & Lysy, 2003; Rosenthal & Hooley, 2010). For example, there are least two ways in which the measurement of an employee's inflated-self views may be confounded with a lack of concern for others.

First, although inflated self-views are by definition perceptions that a person holds of themselves, previous research has often calculated an individual's inflated self-views based upon how they feel about themselves relative to others (Colvin et al., 1995). Yet comparative judgments are often dependent upon the level of abstraction in the comparison (Alicke, Klotz, Breitenbecher, Yurak, & Vredenburg, 1995). For example, Alicke (1985) defined college students as having inflated self-views by examining the difference between ratings of their own traits and ratings of the "average college student" (Alicke, 1985). Although the participant was part of the "average" population, they likely had little immediate concern for the well being of the theoretical average college student. In

comparison, other researchers have examined what happens when individuals compare themselves to specific individuals or members of their own social group, with whom they presumably feel a greater level of concern. As in-group members are judged more favorably than out-group members even when group membership has no discernible meaning (Howard & Rothbart, 1980), if an employee's inflated self-views are measured relative to a favorably judged in-group member, then the employee will appear to have less inflated self-views regardless of how they see themselves. To further complicate this issue, researchers often do not make explicit indications of who the individual should use as their comparison group when expressing their self-views (Krueger, 1998). In these cases the employee's orientation toward the comparison group is unclear, and the employee's expressed self-view may be either a diminished or exaggerated representation of reality. As a result, researchers using social comparisons as a measure of inflated self-views have been unable to find a consistent relationship between inflated self-views and interpersonal outcomes (Kwan et al., 2004).

A second problem may occur when operationalizations confound inflated self-views with an employee's level of entitlement. Many researchers have used the Narcissistic Personality Inventory or NPI (Raskin & Terry, 1988) as an indicator of inflated self-views. Yet, recent research has determined that narcissism is actually the interaction of multiple dimensions of an individual's personality (Ackerman et al., 2011; Brown et al., 2009; Corry, Merritt, Mrug, & Pamp, 2008). Many of the outcomes previously ascribed to narcissism are really the result of two separate factors; "Grandiosity" and "Entitlement" (Brown et al., 2009). Grandiosity refers specifically to the inflation in the individual's self-view, which may be exhibited in feelings of superiority (Raskin & Terry, 1988; Emmons, 1987), self-admiration (Emmons, 1987), self-sufficiency (Raskin & Terry, 1988), vanity (Raskin & Terry, 1988), and authority (Raskin & Terry, 1988; Corry et al., 2008; Emmons, 1987). Entitlement on the other hand, is defined as an individual's belief that he or she deserves preferential rewards and treatment relative to others, often without consideration of abilities or performance levels (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). Entitlement captures aspects of narcissism related to interpersonal deservedness and the objectification of others (Brown et al., 2009; Campbell, Goodie, & Foster, 2004b). It is the simultaneous presence of an individual's internally focused self-view and their

externally focused entitlement, rather than either trait individually, that epitomizes narcissism (Brown et al., 2009).

The combining of inflated self-views and entitlement may be partially responsible for the assumption that inflated self-views are directly linked with a lack of concern for others. Individuals who are high on entitlement demonstrate little concern for the feelings of others (Zeigler-Hill, 2006), make self-serving attributions (Harvey & Martinko, 2009), and often view others as tools to accomplish their personal goals (Busch, Bell, Hotaling, & Monto, 2002). Entitled individuals also exhibit less loyalty, less empathy, and less perspective taking than their peers (Campbell et al., 2004a), and avoid getting emotionally attached to others (Tolmacz & Mikulincer, 2011). Entitled employees have a tendency to insult and spread rumors about their coworkers (Harvey & Harris, 2010), get easily frustrated with others (Harvey & Harris, 2010), blame others for negative outcomes (Harvey & Martinko, 2009) and they have an inability to forgive others (Exline, Baumeister, Bushman, Campbell, & Finkel, 2004). Overall, individuals exhibiting high entitlement have a tendency to put their own concerns above the concerns of the group (Campbell et al., 2004a), often causing a more stressful working environment (Hochwarter, Summers, Thompson, Perrewe, & Ferris, 2010), and making entitlement more interpersonally divisive than other traits related to narcissism (Carroll, HoenigmannStovall, & Whitehead, 1996). As a result, operationalizations that have confounded inflated self-views with entitlement may have simultaneously blurred the distinction between an employee's inflated self-views and the employee's level of concern for others.

Regardless of whether researchers have used social comparison measures of inflated self-views or have relied upon trait scales, there is a potential to confound the employee's inflated self-views with a lack of concern for others. Although a number of more direct measures have been developed to avoid the confounding of inflated self-views with other constructs (Kwan et al., 2004; Paulhus et al., 2003; Rosenthal, Hooley, & Steshenko, 2007) these measures have yet to become prominent in the literature. I suggest that recognizing the theoretical distinction between an employee's inflated self-views and their interpersonal beliefs, such as their level of entitlement, may be a necessary step for understanding the effects of an employee's inflated self-views on coworker judgments and behaviors.

If an employee's inflated self-views and level entitlement are independent, then accounting for variation in the latter may help explain whether the employee's inflated self-views lead to favorable or unfavorable outcomes. For example, prior research has demonstrated that *narcissistic* employees who hold inflated-self views also feel a high degree of entitlement (Campbell et al., 2004a). If an employee's behavior is seen as selfish or indicative of low loyalty to the group then group members may question the employee's intentions and develop negative attitudes towards the employee (Campbell et al., 2004a; Fiske et al., 2007). Conversely, in some situations an employee may hold inflated self-views, yet behave in ways that demonstrate concern for the interests of both themselves and their coworkers (De Dreu, 2006). Rather than scrutinizing the self-enhancing employee's behavior, an employee's inflated self-views might lead to continued favorable impressions of the employee. In other words, coworkers may interpret the employee's behavior differently depending upon whether the employee expresses only an inflated view of their abilities, or both an inflated self-view and a high level of entitlement.

Summary

Although the prevalence of inflated self-views is well demonstrated, it is less clear how an employee's inflated self-views influence the perceptions and behaviors of others. I develop a theory and predictions explaining why, in some cases, an employee's inflated self-view leads to positive or negative behaviors toward the employee. I argue that an employee's inflated self-view and their level of entitlement are not as highly linked as has been assumed by earlier research. Accounting for variation in the latter may explain previous inconsistent findings linking inflated self-views to interpersonal outcomes.

Model

The present research aims to test a model of how an employee's inflated self-views influence coworker behaviors. I argue (a) that an employee's inflated self-views will be positively related to the amount of information that coworkers share with the employee. I also argue that an employee's inflated self-views will positively influence the amount that coworkers help the employee. On the

other hand, I suggest (b) that an employee's level of entitlement will be negatively related to the amount of information and help that they receive from their coworkers. I further suggest (c) that each of these behaviors (helping and information sharing) will be mediated by the coworker's judgments of the employee's warmth and competence. I do not however predict that these benefits will accrue equally for all self-enhancing employees. I suggest (d) that demonstrations of an employee's entitlement will weaken the relationship between the employee's beliefs and perceptions of the employee's warmth and competence. These decreased warmth and competence perceptions will then lead coworkers to provide less information and help to the self-enhancing employee. Overall, I suggest that both the employee's self-view and level of entitlement affect coworker perceptions of and behaviors toward an employee.

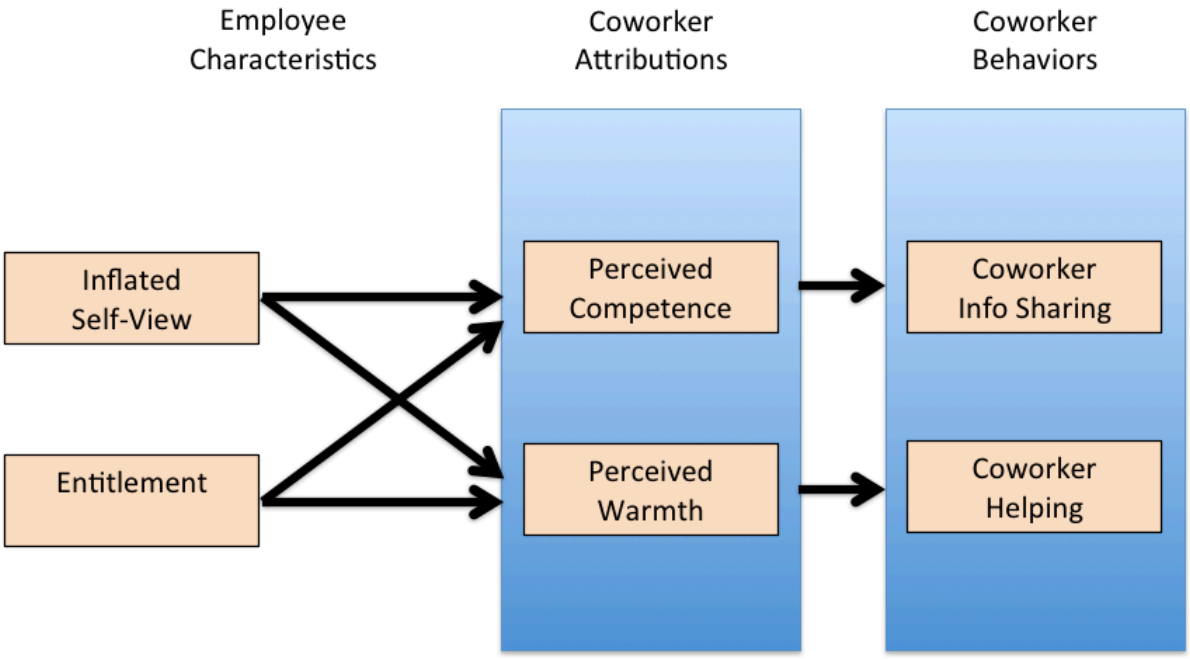

Figure 1: Overall Model

COWORKER BEHAVIORS

An individual's ability to perform well at work is dependent upon not only their own knowledge and skills, but also their ability to garner support from others within their group and organization. Yet the relationship between an employee's individual characteristics and the support that they receive on the job has received relatively little attention (Lepine & Van Dyne, 2001a). In the following section I discuss how an employee's inflated self-views may influence two sets of coworker behaviors, information sharing and helping, that are vital to an employee's ability to both make decisions and execute actions.

Information Sharing

The quality of an employee's decisions may be dependent upon the comprehensiveness of the information that they can access when making decisions. As a result, employees often need others to share information with them to efficiently perform their jobs. Group members are often selected specifically because of the knowledge or expertise that they can share with others in the group (Jehn & Shah, 1997) and the extent to which group members communicate that expertise ultimately may have either a positive or negative effect on the group's performance (De Dreu & Beersma, 2010; Mesmer-Magnus & DeChurch, 2009).

Information sharing is defined as the disclosure of factual task-relevant information to other group members (Stasser & Stewart, 1992), which can include talking about the task, expressing feelings and ideas, or freely exchanging other task-related thoughts (Jehn & Shah, 1997). Unlike home or school settings where an individual's emphasis is on gaining personal knowledge, workplace norms may specify that group members share information with one another (Constant, Kiesler, & Sproull, 1994). Yet, research has demonstrated that groups are often inefficient in how they share information (Stasser & Titus, 1987, 2003). Even when organizations invest significant resources into developing infrastructure that facilitates information sharing, they may be unable to get group members to use the systems to share their ideas (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2002). Members of groups may

withhold unique knowledge, focusing group discussions on jointly held information, potentially because sharing unique information creates a risk of retaliation, punishment, or appearing incompetent (Edmondson, 1999). As a result, employees are often forced to make decisions using a biased subset of all possible information (Stasser & Titus, 1985). Thus the perceived risk associated with sharing information may counteract the workplace norms to share information. With contradictory forces of workplace norms and perceived risk, it becomes difficult to understand the exact conditions under which coworkers will share information with or withhold information from an employee. I suggest that an employee's inflated self-views may influence both the formation of information sharing norms within the group, as well as whether coworkers perceive information sharing to be risky.

Each employee in a group has an opportunity to influence the development of group norms. To do so, an employee needs to exhibit superior abilities in terms of *both* their social skills and their task competence (Driskell, Olmstead, & Salas, 1993; Lord, 1985). Self-enhancing employees are often viewed as being happier, more optimistic, lower in social anxiety, and more socially adjusted than their realistic peers (Kurt & Paulhus, 2008; Robins & Beer, 2001; Taylor & Brown, 1988). As a result, coworkers may like self-enhancing employees and see them as being socially skilled. Furthermore, self-enhancing employees often present themselves as being more confident and intelligent than their peers (Paulhus, 1998). Because self-enhancing employees come across as more competent than their more realistic peers, they may have a greater influence on the formation of group norms (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009; Greenfeld & Kuznicki, 1975). The extent to which coworkers like the self-enhancing employee and view the employee as competent will determine how much influence the employee has on norms related to information sharing.

If a self-enhancing employee is seen as both likeable and competent, then their choice of whether to share information will effect the sharing of information by others in the group. Employees with inflated self-views have an increased propensity to take action (Fast, Gruenfeld, Silvanathan, Galinsky, 2009) and specifically demonstrate an increase in risky behaviors (e.g. Il &Tang, 2010). This tendency is not caused by a desire to be risky, but rather by the individual's blind spot in recognizing the level of risk that actually exists (Sitkin & Pablo, 1992). As employees with inflated

self-views are less prone to worry about the consequences of their actions (Weinstein, 1982) they may be more open to sharing information than individuals with more realistic self-views. If a self-enhancing employee is influential in the group, then their decision to share information may help to establish a pattern of information sharing for the rest of the group to follow. This pattern will in turn benefit the self-enhancing employee, as coworkers will be more likely to share information with the employee.

H1: There will be a positive relationship between an employee's inflated self-views and the amount of information that coworkers share with the employee.

Although I expect a positive relationship between inflated self-views and the amount of information an employee receives, this positive relationship may not hold for other factors that have been confounded with inflated self-views in the previous research. There are many reasons why information is communicated within an organizational setting. Coworkers may share information relevant to a specific decision or provide information as a means of social support (Dalal & Bonaccio, 2010). Workplace communication may also serve as a way to reduce ambiguity with regard to an employee's performance (Martinko & Gardner, 1987).

Although most employee's respond favorably when they receive consistent and appropriate feedback (Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979), not all employees are equally open to receiving feedback from their coworkers. New facts related to a task may suggest the need to change directions or refocus ones effort. Employee's who are high on entitlement have a tendency to make external attributions, often blaming others for impeding there progress toward a goal (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). Entitled employees may also aggressively reject information that they view as being personally critical (Campbell et al., 2004a). As a result, entitled employee's become more frustrated when they receive information from others, and may hold negative expectations regarding the value of sharing information (Harvey & Harris, 2010). As a result, employees with a high level of entitlement may be less prone to seek information from their coworkers.

In addition, coworkers may view information sharing as a reciprocal behavior, wherein coworkers are more likely to share information with an individual who has openly shared information with them. Entitled employees are often more selfish, competitively keeping critical resources from others (Campbell et al., 2004a). Such individuals may strategically conceal privately held information or even lie about their private information in order to get personal gain (Steinel, Utz, & Koning, 2010). If coworkers believe an entitled employee is hiding information or misleading the group, they may be less willing to share information with that employee. I suggest that an employee's level of entitlement will be negatively related to the amount of information that they receive from their coworkers.

H2: There will be a negative relationship between an employee's level of entitlement and the amount of information that coworkers share with the employee.

Helping

Although much of a team's effectiveness is due to in-role behaviors, such as sharing information within the group, a team's ability to function is also dependent upon each employee's decision to perform discretionary behaviors that benefit others (Organ, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Smith et al., 1983; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Of the many types of discretionary behaviors, helping behaviors are the most typical and the most consistently related to workplace performance (Ehrhart, Bliese, & Thomas, 2006; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). As a result, helping has been identified as one of the most important forms of organizational citizenship (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Helping behaviors may include any discretionary activities that involve actively assisting others with work related problems or preventing the occurrence of potential problems. Helping behaviors include altruism, courtesy, and most other behaviors that are directed at aiding specific individuals within the organization (Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Previous research has demonstrated that a number of factors influence an individual's participation in helping behaviors. For example, the perceived fairness of group processes (how

punishments are allocated) may increase the willingness of group members to help each other (Ball, Trevino, & Sims, 1994; Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990). Characteristics of the acting individual, such as their job attitudes, satisfaction, and mood may all influence their willingness to help others (Organ, 1994; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Smith et al., 1983). Personality factors such as the acting individual's level of agreeableness, conscientiousness, and social value orientation have also been positively related to their willingness to help others (Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007; McClintock & Allison, 1989; Organ & Lingl, 1995).

Despite a strong and growing literature on organizational citizenship behaviors, most research in this area has focused on characteristics of the individual enacting the behavior, neglecting the effect that the employee being helped has on his or her coworker's decision to act (Lepine & Van Dyne, 2001a). One exception is the research on coworker support, which has demonstrated that individuals are more likely to participate in citizenship behaviors if they are receiving support from others within their group (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). However even this stream of research has not clearly demonstrated whether the helping behavior is directed toward the same individual who initially gave support, or if the behavior is generally reciprocated within the group. To more fully understand when helping behavior will occur, it may be useful to examine whether a particular type of employee is more or less able to elicit help from others.

Coworkers are more likely to help a specific employee if they believe that the employee had little control over the cause of the problem (Betancourt, 1990; Lepine & Van Dyne, 2001a). As a result, any characteristic of an employee that influences attributions of external causality for a problem should also affect coworker helping behavior. For example, regardless of how a problem occurred, likeable individuals are seen as less responsible for having caused the problem (Alicke & Zell, 2009). As employees with inflated self-views are often more socially adjusted and lower in social anxiety than their more realistic peers, they may also appear more likeable (Brendgen, Vitaro, Turgeon, Poulin, & Wanner, 2004; Taylor & Brown 1988) and may receive a greater amount of help from their coworkers. Similarly, if coworkers believe that an employee is competent, they may assume that the employee did everything possible to prevent the problem. As self-enhancing employees are often seen

as more competent (Bandura, Adams, & Beyer, 1977; Taylor & Brown, 1988), an employee's inflated self-views may lead to lower perceived culpability, and consequently a greater tendency for others to help them.

In addition to lower perceptions of culpability, an employee's perceived competence may have a secondary benefit. Interactions are often based upon the resources that one individual believes the other will bring to the relationship (Casciaro & Lobo, 2008). Coworkers may choose to help a specific employee in hopes of future reciprocity (Murnighan, Kim, & Metzger, 1993; Organ et al., 2006). As a result, people are typically more willing to help someone who they believe is competent and capable of reciprocating in the future (Choi, 2009). If a self-enhancing employee is seen as more competent than his or her peers, coworkers will be more willing to help them as problems arise. Overall there will be a positive relationship between an employee's inflated self-views and the amount of help that the employee receives from their coworkers.

H3: There will be a positive relationship between an employee's inflated self-views and the amount of help that coworkers give to the employee.

The same positive association between inflated self-views and the amount of help an employee receives may not be expected with all aspects of the self-concept. Entitled employees often create interpersonal hostility and conflict in their relationships (Moeller, Crocker, & Bushman, 2009). These employees are also less loyal, more likely to insult or spread rumors about their coworkers, and more likely to become aggressive (Campbell et al., 2004a; Harvey & Harris, 2010; Reidy, Zeichner, Foster, & Martinez, 2008). These tendencies may explain why entitled individual's are often less secure in their relationships (Tolmacz & Mikulincer, 2011), and why their relationships are typically shorter and of lower quality (Allen et al., 2009). The strength or weakness of relationships may then influence the extent to which an individual receives help from others (Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007; Van Dyne, Kamdar, & Joireman, 2008). By weakening their relationships, an employee's sense of entitlement may decrease the amount of help the employee receives from their coworkers.

Entitled employees also have the potential to decrease helping behavior throughout their entire group. The presence of an entitled employee may activate previously dormant faultlines within a group, ultimately increasing group conflict (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010). The formation of coalitions within a group may also cause a general sense of competitive antagonism. This antagonism may then be associated with decreased levels of interpersonal citizenship behaviors (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). Because the entitled employee is a member of the group, he or she will receive less help due to the increase in group-level antagonism. As a result, the employee's entitlement may lead them to receive less help from their coworkers.

H4: There will be a negative relationship between an employee's level of entitlement and the amount of help that coworkers give to the employee.

COWORKER PERCEPTIONS

To more fully understand why coworkers choose to help or share information with an employee, it may be necessary to take a deeper look at the cognitive processes underlying these behaviors. Heider (1958) posited that individuals are naïve psychologists trying to make sense of the world around them. A large part of this process is developing an understanding of why others act the way they do and how they will act in the future. As a result, coworkers will judge an employee in ways that they feel best predict the employee's future actions.

A number of different factors influence how an employee behaves within the organization. Yet despite the option of attributing an employee's behavior to external causes, coworkers typically explain the behavior by attributing the behavior to stable traits of the employee (Jones & Davis, 1965). Predicting stable traits of the employee reduces a coworker's uncertainty by allowing them to assume that the employee will behave tomorrow similarly to how they behaved today, regardless of tomorrow's context. The way coworkers interpret the causes of the employee's behavior, and the

perceptions that others form of the employee, then play an important role in determining how coworkers will respond to the employee's behavior (Kelley & Michela, 1980).

Previous research has clearly demonstrated that most trait judgments fall along two dimensions of human cognition (Cislak & Wojciszke, 2008; Fiske et al., 2007; Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002; Judd, James-Hawkins, Yzerbyt, & Kashima, 2005; Kervyn, Judd, & Yzerbyt, 2009; Rosenber.S, Nelson, & Vivekana.Ps, 1968; Wojciszke, Bazinska, & Jaworski, 1998). The first dimension is comprised of perceptions related to an individual's warmth such as their morality, trustworthiness, sincerity, kindness, and friendliness (Cuddy et al., 2008; Fiske et al., 2007; Judd et al., 2005; Williams & Bargh, 2008). These social judgments of an individual are related to the perceived intentions behind the individual's behavior (Fiske et al., 2002). If an employee's intentions are seen as being aligned with others in the group then they will be judged as warm, but if their intentions are not seen as helping others then the employee will be seen as cold (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2008).

The second dimension is related to the employee's competence and includes such perceptions as their skill, creativity, confidence, and intelligence (Cuddy et al., 2008). While warmth judgments relate to a person's intentions, judgments of the employee's competence are based upon expectations of whether the employee is capable of enacting their intentions (Fiske et al., 2002). For example, an employee may be paid to analyze their department's workflow, or they may conduct the analysis during their lunch break with an altruistic intention to improve their department's efficiency. Although the two scenarios represent different intentions, successful development of an analysis spreadsheet would indicate competence in both cases.

When group members observe an employee's actions, judgments along these two dimensions of warmth and competence account for a large proportion of the variance in how the employee will be evaluated (Wojciszke et al., 1998). Prior work has suggested that the way a person is judged influences the observer's subsequent actions toward the person (Cuddy et al., 2008; Fiske et al., 2002; Kelley, 1950; Kelley & Michela, 1980). For example, if an employee is seen as both competent and warm, then their coworkers will respond with admiration and a desire to cooperate with the employee (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2007). On the other hand, if the employee is seen as competent but low on

warmth then their coworkers will respond with behaviors that actively harm the employee (Cuddy et al., 2008). In this way, judgments of an employee's warmth and competence can have a subsequent impact on the employee's ability to do his or her job.

Warmth Perceptions

Individuals with inflated self-views tend to be happier, more optimistic, and have a greater capacity to care for others when compared with their more realistic peers (Robins & Beer, 2001; Taylor & Brown, 1988). Individuals with inflated self-views are also more socially adjusted and lower in social anxiety, which may lead to more positive relationships with others (Brendgen, Vitaro, Turgeon, Poulin, & Wanner, 2004; Kurt & Paulhus, 2008). As coworkers often use cues from an employee's existing relationships when making interpersonal judgments of the employee (Buhrmester, Furman, Wittenberg, & Reis, 1988), a self-enhancing employee's coworkers may judge him or her as higher in warmth than their more realistic peers.

Furthermore, individuals with inflated self-views may develop inflated views of others in their group. Implicit egotism refers to the tendency for people to think more highly of people, places, or things that are somehow connected to themselves. For example, people are more cooperative with someone they believe has the same birthday as them (Miller, Down, & Pretice, 1998). The implicit egotism effect may also cause a process of self-expansion, whereby individuals may include others in their sense of self (Baumeister and Leary, 1995; Leary, 2007; Aron, Aron, Norman, 2001). Consequently, a self-enhancing employee may develop inflated opinions regarding coworkers. People generally like others who evaluate them favorably (Shrauger & Jones, 1968) or who express favorable or ingratiatory evaluations of them (Gordon, 1996). Coworkers may also view the self-enhancing employee to be their friend because the employee had previously expressed an overly positive perspective of the relationship (Brendgen et al., 2004). Even if the ingratiation is not targeted at them, coworkers may be biased to judge the employee favorably simply because the employee describes others favorably (Mae, Carlston, & Skowronski, 1999). As a result, an employee's inflated self-views may be associated with increased judgments of the employee's warmth.

H5: There will be a positive relationship between an employee's inflated self-views and coworker judgments of the employee's warmth.

Although inflated self-views are expected to have a positive association with warmth perceptions, the opposite effect may be expected regarding an employee's entitlement. There are two reasons to expect individuals high in entitlement to be judged as lower in warmth. First, entitlement is associated with elevated, and often unrealistic, expectations regarding the work environment. As these expectations are unmet, the employee revaluates their environment often leading to negative dispositions and lower levels of job satisfaction (Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002; Weiner, 1985). Judgments of an individual's warmth are largely dependent upon behavioral cues such as the frequency of smiling and making positive statements (Bayes, 1972). Yet, individuals with low job satisfaction are more likely to gripe about facets of their life (Judge & Hulin, 1993) rather than focusing on things that are positive. I suggest that coworkers may interpret an entitled employee's negative dispositions and low job satisfaction as an indicator of low warmth.

Second, previous research has demonstrated a negative relationship between entitlement and a number of individual differences. For example, entitlement is negatively associated with an individual's level of agreeableness (Campbell et al., 2004a; Pryor, Miller, & Gaughan, 2008), as well as self-report indicators of an individual's warmth and positive emotions (Pryor et al., 2008). As observers are often able to recognize personality traits, even in zero-acquaintance relationships, I predict these characteristics will be reflected in observer judgments of an individual's warmth. As a result, an employee's level of entitlement will be negatively associated with coworker judgments of the employee's warmth.

H6: There will be a negative relationship between an employee's level of entitlement and coworker judgments of the employee's warmth.

Competence Perceptions

In addition to determining an employee's intentions, whether they are friend or foe, group members judge an employee's ability to enact those intentions. That is, competence judgments are also a fundamental part of the attribution process. I suggest two potential explanations for why an employee's inflated self-views may positively influence perceptions of the employee's competence.

First, if an employee believes that they are competent, they may communicate this belief to others (Jones & Shrauger, 1970). Inflated self-views are often projected through cues such as speaking louder and gesturing, which coworkers may interpret as signs of the employee's competence (Anderson & Brion, 2010). An employee may also choose to disclose positive information about their past achievements or directly boast about their abilities (Miller et al., 1992; Powers & Zuroff, 1988). If coworkers take cues from the employee's behaviors and self-presentation, the employee's own inflated self-views may cause their coworkers to develop similarly favorable impressions of the employee's competence (Taylor & Brown, 1988, 1994).

Second, inflated self-views are associated with a broad tendency to take frequent action (Anderson & Galinsky, 2006; Paulhus, 1998) giving coworkers a greater number of observation points when judging self-enhancing employees. Yet, unlike perceptions of warmth, where a single negative behavior can indicate poor intentions, even highly competent individuals may fail because of obstacles, fatigue, or lack of motivation. As a result, *negative* information related to an employee's competence is seen as less diagnostic when coworkers are making judgments of the employee (Fiske, 1980). Previous research has demonstrated that coworkers will ignore some negative information when making judgments of an employee's competence (De Bruin & Van Lange, 2000; Norton et al., 2007; Skowronski & Carlston, 1987, 1989; Yzerbyt & Leyens, 1991). As a result, coworkers may be more attune to positive examples of employee performance, with extreme positive performance playing a large role in the formation of competence judgments (Wojciszke et al., 1993). By providing more examples of their behavior, self-enhancing employees are unintentionally increasing judgments of their competence.

Lastly, self-enhancing employees are prone to take more risks than their more realistic peers (Li & Tang, 2010) possibly resulting in more extreme outcomes. Because self-enhancing employees are more motivated, creative, and persistent, they are likely to be successful even in risky endeavors (Bandura, 1977; Jacobs, Prenticedunn, & Rogers, 1984; Taylor & Brown, 1988, 1994; Taylor, Pham, Rivkin, & Armor, 1998). Furthermore, if coworkers are attuned to positive indicators of the employee's competence, then these extreme positive outcomes will be particularly salient indications of the employee's competence (Fiske, 1980; Wojciszke et al., 1993). The self-enhancing employee's propensity for taking risks may thus further increase perceptions of his or her competence.

In summary, a self-enhancing employee will be seen as more competent than their more realistic peers. This may be partially due to the self-enhancing employee's decision to communicate his or her own beliefs to others. The self-enhancing employee's increased propensity for action may also give coworkers access to more examples of the employee's performance. When coupled with a positivity bias the employee's increased activity may provide more examples of positive performance. Lastly, self-enhancing employees are more prone to take risks, potentially leading to more extreme positive performance when compared with more realistic employees. As a result, an employee's inflated self-views will have a positive relationship with coworker judgments of the employee's competence.

H7: There will be a positive relationship between an employee's inflated self-views and coworker judgments of the employee's competence.

Although observers may accept an employee's self-presentation and other observable cues at face value, these cues may also be filtered based upon other information regarding the target. Observers may similarly filter true indicators related to the target's competence. For example, De Bruin and Van Lange (2000) examined how information regarding an individual's morality affected competence judgments. They demonstrated that competent targets only elicited more favorable impressions than incompetent targets when positive information was presented about the target's

morality. When an individual's morality is in question, observers are less likely to seek or care about information that confirms the individual's competence (De Bruin & Van Lange, 2000). Previous research has linked entitlement with selfishness, aggressive, and a willingness to take candy from children (Campbell et al., 2004a). Entitled individuals are also more willing to participant in morally questionable behavior such as deliberately cheat on a test (Brown et al., 2009). As observers recognize these behaviors they may be less open to information that reflects positively on the actor's competence. As a result, I suggest that an employee's level of entitlement will be negatively associated with coworker judgments of the employee's competence.

H8: There will be a negative relationship between the employee's level of entitlement and coworker judgments of the employee's competence.

MEDIATING ROLE OF COMPETENCE AND WARMTH

As stated earlier, judgments of an individual's competence and warmth account for a large proportion of the variance in how people evaluate behavior, and play an important role in determining how coworkers will react to an employee (Kelley & Michela, 1980). Recent work also suggests that related perceptions, such as the employee's perceived social skill and task ability, mediate the relationship between an employee's beliefs and higher order perceptions such as the employee's status within the group (Kennedy, Anderson, & Moore, 2011). I go even farther suggesting that perceptions of an employee's warmth and competence not only mediate between different perceptions, but facilitate the relationship between an employee's inflated self-views and coworker behaviors such as helping and sharing information with the employee. I also suggest that warmth and competence perceptions mediate the relationship between an employee's level of entitlement and coworker behaviors.

Mediating Role of Warmth

One way in which self-enhancing employees influence coworker information sharing is by establishing themselves as a model for normative group behaviors. Yet, coworkers may choose not to adopt a self-enhancing employee's behaviors as the norms for the group. Because information sharing is not a purely altruistic behavior, coworkers may believe that an employee who they see as low in warmth is sharing information purely for personal gain (De Dreu, Nijstad, & van Knippenberg, 2008; Maner & Mead, 2010; Steinel et al., 2010; Swift, Balkin, & Matusik, 2010; Wittenbaum, Hollingshead, & Botero, 2004). Similarly, the behaviors of entitled employees are often viewed as political rather than altruistically motivated (Harvey & Harris, 2010). If coworkers believe that the employee is acting on a personal agenda, they may choose to withhold information from the employee. As a result, judgments of an employee's warmth may mediate the relationship between the employee's beliefs and the amount of information the employee receives from his or her coworkers.

The quality of relationships within a group may also influence the extent to which an employee receives help (Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007; Van Dyne et al., 2008). As such, factors that damage the employee's relationships, such the employee's entitlement, would decrease the amount of help that they received from others. A coworker's willingness to help a self-enhancing employee is also based on expectations of future reciprocity. Coworkers choose to help employees who they believe both can and will reciprocate in the future (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). Because expected reciprocity is dependent upon the perceived relationship between the helper and target, indications of an individual's warmth may influence the amount of help they receive. Rather than helping the employee, coworkers may withhold help or even harm a cold employee (Fiske, Harris, & Cuddy, 2004). As a result, judgments of an employee's warmth will mediate the relationship between the employee's beliefs and a coworker's willingness to help the employee.

H9a: Perceptions of an employee's warmth will mediate the relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and a group member's willingness to share information with the employee.

H9b: Perceptions of an employee's warmth will mediate the relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and a group member's willingness to help the employee.

H10a: Perceptions of an employee's warmth will mediate the relationship between the employee's level of entitlement and a group member's willingness to share information with the employee.

H10b: Perceptions of an employee's warmth will mediate the relationship between the employee's level of entitlement and a group member's willingness to help the employee.

Mediating Role of Competence

While may factors may affect an employee's influence on group norms, competence is often considered a necessary condition before others will choose to use an employee as a social model (Bandura, 1974). The more competent coworkers believe an employee to be, the more likely that they will imitate the employee's behaviors (Bandura, 1974; Baron, 1970; Greenfeld & Kuznicki, 1975; Weiss, 1977). As a result, the perceived competence of an employee determines the amount of influence that they will have on the formation of group norms related to information sharing (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009; Greenfeld & Kuznicki, 1975). As a result, perceptions of an employee's competence will mediate the relationship between the employee's beliefs and coworker information sharing.

Perceptions that an employee is competent may also form a necessary, albeit insufficient, explanation of coworker helping behaviors. Group members often choose to help a specific employee

in hopes of future reciprocity (Murnighan et al., 1993; Organ et al., 2006), and a coworker's decision to help an employee is often based upon perceptions of the resources they believe the employee will bring to the relationship (Casciaro & Lobo, 2008). Because reciprocity is only possible when the employee has the correct skills to help the group member in the future, group members may be more willing to help someone who they believe is competent than someone who is seen as incompetent. I expect that judgments of an employee's competence will thus mediate the relationship between an employee's inflated self-views and the willingness of group members to help the employee. As the effect of entitlement on coworker helping is also related to expectations of reciprocity, I similarly predict that competence will mediate the relationship between an employee's level of entitlement and the amount of help the employee receives from his or her coworkers.

H11a: Perceptions of an employee's competence will mediate the relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and a group member's willingness to share information with the employee.

H11b: Perceptions of an employee's competence will mediate the relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and a group member's willingness to help the employee.

H12a: Perceptions of an employee's competence will mediate the relationship between the employee's level of entitlement and a group member's willingness to share information with the employee.

H12b: Perceptions of an employee's competence will mediate the relationship between the employee's level of entitlement and a group member's willingness to help the employee.

MODERATING ROLE OF ENTITLEMENT

Although I have proposed a positive path between an employee's inflated self-views and the perceptions and behaviors of their coworker's, this relationship may be somewhat more complicated. The effect of an employee's inflated self-views on coworker judgments may be dependent upon whether the employee simultaneously demonstrates a high level of entitlement. For example, Lonnqvist and colleagues (2011) examined the effect of a military cadet's inflated self-views on judgments of the cadet's leadership ability. As expected, the cadet's inflated self-views were positively related to the perceptions that others formed of his or her abilities. Self-enhancing cadets were generally regarded as better leaders. However when the cadet's inflated self-views were communally driven, meaning that the cadet was striving to be liked by others, the cadet was regarded as being a worse leader. Perceptions of the cadet, as well as the behaviors enacted toward the cadet were thus dependent upon the interaction of the cadet's inflated self-views and their orientation toward others. I suggest that an employee's level of entitlement similarly moderates the effect of inflated self-views on coworker perceptions of the self-enhancing employee.

Entitlement and Warmth

While coworkers may form positive judgments of a self-enhancing employee's warmth, these judgments may diverge if coworkers receive confounding information about the employee. Negative information about an employee's warmth is often rare and less ambiguous than positive information (Fiske, 1980). As a result, negative information is often considered more diagnostic than positive information when making warmth judgments because negative information gives insight into whether the employee's intentions run contrary to the group (De Bruin & Van Lange, 2000; Fiske, 1980; Skowronski & Carlston, 1987, 1989; Wojciszke et al., 1993). Even a single indication that an employee lacks concern for the well being of others may cause coworkers to question the employee's warmth.

Although inflated self-views are often associated with positive social behaviors (Taylor & Brown, 1988), some individuals with inflated self-views may behave in ways that imply low concern for the well being of others (Paulhus, 1998). For example, self-enhancing employees who are simultaneously high on entitlement may a) promote themselves at the expense of others around them (Campbell et al., 2005), b) ignore feedback from others (Taylor & Armor, 1996), and c) become aggressive toward others (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; David & Kistner, 2000). All of these behaviors may be construed as an indication of a low level of concern for the well being of others in the group, and may increase scrutiny of the focal employee's behavior (Paulhus, 1998).

Increased scrutiny or attention to an employee's negative behavior may then cause coworkers to make downward adjustments to their appraisals of the employee's warmth (Nisbett et al., 1981; Norton et al., 2007). When considering contradictory information related to an employee's warmth, coworkers may overcompensate and develop a negativity bias that punishes the self-enhancing employee for discrepant cues (Jones & Shrauger, 1970; Wojciszke et al., 1993). If a self-enhancing employee had expressed cues that indicated higher warmth than was warranted, then overcompensation might lead to excessively low judgments of the employee's warmth. In this way a self-enhancing employee, who also demonstrates high entitlement, may be judged as less warm than their more realistic peers (Anderson & Spataro, 2005; Colvin et al., 1995; Paulhus, 1998; Robins & Beer, 2001).

I suggest that accounting for an employee's level of entitlement may explain variations in the warmth judgments that group members make of employees with inflated self-views. If a self-enhancing employee demonstrates low entitlement, then the employee's inflated self-views will be associated with increased perceptions of the employee's warm. On the other hand, if the employee demonstrates a high level of entitlement, then their inflated self-views may be associated with decreased perceptions of warmth. Accounting for an employee's level of entitlement may thus determine whether the employee's inflated self-views will lead coworkers to form favorable or unfavorable impressions of the employee's warmth.

H13: An employee's level of entitlement will be associated with a less positive relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and coworker judgments of the employee's warmth.

Entitlement and Competence

Although some individuals may be seen as both competent and warm, subjectively positive evaluations on one dimension of warmth or competence do not necessarily lead to flattering or unflattering judgments along the other dimension (Fiske et al., 2002). For example, the elderly, mentally disabled, and housewives are often stereotyped as low on competence but high on warmth (Cuddy, Norton, & Fiske, 2005; Fiske et al., 2002; Fiske, Xu, Cuddy, & Glick, 1999). On the other hand, Asians, Jews, professional women, and the wealthy are all stereotyped as competent but lacking in warmth (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2004; Fiske et al., 2002; Fiske et al., 1999).

A similar divergence between warmth and competence perceptions might be expected when considering a coworker's response to an employee's inflated self-views. Certain behaviors related to an employee's inflated self-views, particularly those indicating low concern for others, often have differing effects on judgments of an actor's warmth and competence. For example, intimidation tactics decrease perceptions of an employee's warmth while increasing perceptions that the employee is competent (Bolino & Turnley, 2003). Similarly, when coworkers recognize an employee's self-promoting behavior, they often view the employee as less likeable, but still form elevated judgments of his or her competence (Miller et al., 1992). As a result, employees with inflated self-views are often seen as socially unattractive yet highly capable in terms of task performance (Powers & Zuroff, 1988).

I suggest that an employee's level of entitlement will weaken the relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and perceptions of the employee's competence. If a self-enhancing employee is high on entitlement coworkers may scrutinize the employee's behavior (Paulhus, 1998). Since inflated self-views are negatively related with actual competence (Dunning et al., 2003), and inflated self-views are by definition greater than the employee's true ability, scrutiny of the employee's behavior will likely lead to lower coworker perceptions of the employee's competence.

On the other hand, if a self-enhancing employee is low on entitlement, the employee's true competence will be masked. In this situation the employee's inflated self-views will be associated with higher coworker perceptions of the employee's competence. As a result, an employee's demonstrated entitlement may weaken the relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and perceptions of the employee's competence.

Accounting for an employee's level of entitlement may explain some of the variance in whether the employee's inflated self-views lead coworkers to form favorable or unfavorable impressions of the employee's competence. Despite the negative relationship between inflated self-views and actual competence, the employee's true abilities may be masked when they demonstrate concern for others. I suggest that an employee's entitlement will lead to a less positive relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and coworker judgments of the employee's competence.

H14: An employee's level of entitlement will be associated with a less positive relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and coworker judgments of the employee's competence.

Chapter 4: Methodology, Lab Experiment

The relationships described above were tested using two successive investigations. The first study was a lab experiment, containing a 2X2 within subjects manipulation wherein participants made judgments of four confederates in a simulated group experiment. Each of the other four group members were presented as either high or low in self-view and high or low in level of entitlement. The second investigation tests the same model in a field setting with undergraduate project teams, directly examining the reactions of group members to various individuals using round-robin data.

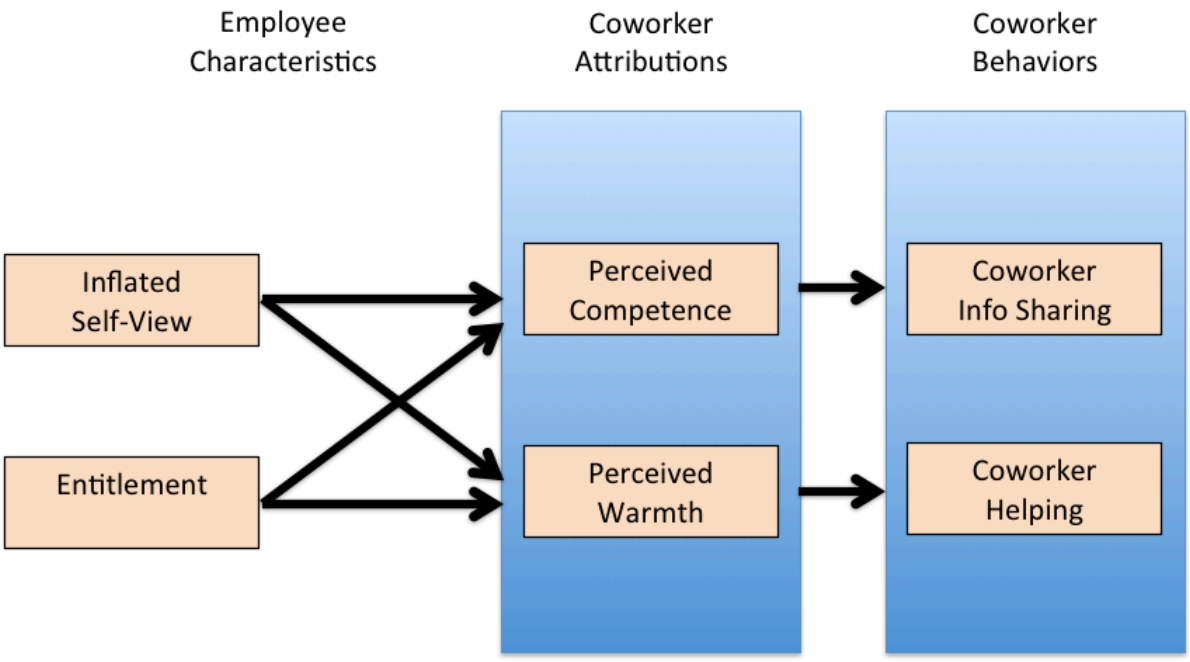

Figure 1: Overall Model

STUDY 1: LAB EXPERIMENT OF INDIVIDUALS RESPONDING TO MANIPULATED TEAM MEMBERS

This investigation is a within-subjects experiment wherein each participant received information regarding the expressed beliefs of four different confederate team members. Each confederate had a different profile in terms of being high or low on their self-views and high or low in their demonstrated level of entitlement. This information is portrayed in the confederate's answers to questions on a social networking profile. After reviewing each confederate's profile, the manipulation is reinforced as participants received further information in the form of the confederate's comments from a business-plan editing task. The participant then made evaluations of each confederate group member.

Participants

Participants for this experiment included 112 (48 male, 61 female, and 3 unreported) undergraduate students, with an average age of 21.1 years, at the University of Texas at Austin who participated for extra credit in a business foundations class taught in the McCombs School of Business.

Procedure

As participants arrived at the lab they receive a description of the experiment and an explanation of the procedure that would be followed. As such, participants were told that they would work in teams of 4 or 5 students each, but that they would not interact directly with other members of the team. All printed material implied that the experiment was investigating the use of social networking to facilitate working in virtual teams. While reading and signing the consent form participants were publically asked to indicate whether they had existing relationships with any of the other participants so that the investigator could ensure that they did not end up in the same team. In most time periods at least one pair of participants were acquainted, allowing the investigator to publically acknowledge that these individuals would be placed into separate teams, and further establish the illusion that real team interactions would take place. The rest of the participants were then escorted, in batches of 2-3 participants at a time, to one of five separate rooms designated for use

in this experiment, suggesting that members of the same team would not be co-located in the same room.

At the beginning of the experiment participants were told that they would eventually participate in some ambiguously defined group task. Participants were told that in preparation for this later task, each member of the team would get to know their teammates through the creation and distribution of a social networking profile. They were also told that they would individually participate in a practice task.

For participants to believe that they were actually part of a real team, each participant created a profile page matching the ones they would later receive from their teammates. It was implied that the experiment was examining how the presence or absence of certain information from a social networking profile may influence the team's performance on a later task. Each participant opened a template containing four questions and was told that the answers to these questions alone constituted their profile. The participant then entered answers to these four questions into the document template. After completing the profile, the participant was instructed to print the document. The process of having each participant create his or her own profile page, and later receiving this page along with the profiles for all other team members, was intended to create an illusion that all of the profiles were created by real participants.

After creation of their social networking profile, and in supposed preparation for the team task, participants were then asked to read a sample business plan document. They were instructed to underline and circle errors, as well as write comments in the margins. In addition to marking the document, participants commented on two questions regarding the business plan: "What do you think of this idea?" and "Who should ultimately pay for this service?" These comments were entered into a document template and printed for distribution to the team. The printed comments served to reinforce the initial manipulation.

Following these preparatory tasks, participants were asked to wait while other team members finished, and to give the investigator time to assemble team packets. After approximately 10 minutes of "collation time", the investigator gave each participant a copy of the profile page for all members of

the participant's team, including their own. Participants also received each team member's printed comments regarding the business plan. Participants were told to "get to know" their team by reviewing the profiles for each team member. Participants were also told that they would be asked questions about their team members at the conclusion of the experiment, and that it was very important for them to pay close attention to all of the material in the team folder. They continued to have access to this information throughout the remainder of the experiment. Each profile, including the participant's, was printed on a colored sheet of paper (Red, Blue, Green, Purple, or Yellow). Each team member's comments regarding the sample business plan were printed on matching paper.

After reading information about all members of their team, each participant completed a brief survey regarding their impressions of each confederate team member. This survey captured assessments of each confederate's warmth and competence by asking participants to rate other members of their team regarding a series of trait adjectives.

I next collected a measure of the participant's willingness to share information with each member of the team. Participants were told that they had received one of five tools used to help in writing business documents. In actuality each participant had received the same business writing style guide. Participants were told that they had discretion to communicate as much or as little information as they would like with each member of the team by copying information from the style guide onto an index card. Presumably communication of this information would be useful to that particular member of the team, and ultimately the team as a whole, during the later task. The participant was given five index cards with the color of each index card matching the color of a corresponding team member's profile. If the participant desired to share information with multiple team members, they were forced to write the information separately for each team member, thus adding a cost associated with sharing information.

After choosing which information to share, participants were given an opportunity to help members of their team. Although helping behavior is by definition somehow beneficial to the work environment, Organ (1988) suggests that it is often hard to prove a direct, one-to-one relationship between each and every instance of altruism and some ultimate benefit to the organization. The most

important feature distinguishing helping behaviors from other types of citizenship behaviors is that the behavior is directed at aiding specific individuals within the organization rather than the organization as a whole (Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Managers often motivate employees through the use of praise or other extrinsic rewards. Praise or rewards received from a coworker, although not part of their job responsibilities, may similarly motivate an individual to be more productive and benefit the organization as a whole. A team member's decision to praise or reward a specific coworker is a way to help that specific coworker become more productive. In order to measure of the participant's willingness to help members of their team, I gave participants an opportunity to give just such praise and reward to each of the four confederates. Specifically, participants were given an opportunity to allocated 23 tickets for a supposed drawing between the four confederate members of the team. By giving participants a prime number of tickets they were unable to equally allocate the reward between two, three, or four confederates.

Manipulation

Each of the confederate team members was designated as either high or low on their projected self-views and high or low on their level of entitlement. Each of the four possible combinations of factors corresponded to a different confederate in the analysis. This manipulation was done primarily through the profile pages provided to the participant, but reiterated within the printed comments regarding the sample business plan. Each social networking profile contained the answers to four questions, with two answers serving as a manipulation of a specific confederate's self-views and two answers serving as a manipulation of the confederate's level of entitlement. To avoid effects due to manipulation order I balanced whether the answer to the first question related to their self-view or entitlement.

As multiple confederates had responses manipulating the same construct, I developed eight possible answers to each of the four profile questions, two answers for each of the manipulated conditions. The specific statements for each manipulation were then randomly distributed between

conditions such that, for example, a specific statement indicating high entitlement was equally likely to appear for a high self-view or a low self-view confederate.

Manipulation Development

The primary goal in developing this manipulation was the creation of statements, or answers to the profile questions, that projected a level of self-view or a level of entitlement, but not both. In order to pretest these answers I ran a series of pilot studies with users from Amazon's mechanical turk (MTurk) (https://www.mturk.com) network. The MTurk system has been routinely used to administer surveys for simple behavioral research (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010) and participants in the MTurk subject pool are at least as representative as traditional subject pools in representing typical internet users (Buhrmester et al., 2011). Each user read either a single answer to one of the profile questions, or a comment regarding the sample business plan. They were then asked to indicate the extent to which a number of characteristics were indicative of the person who had provided that response. Agreement with terms such as "boasting", "cocky", and "overconfident" were used as an indication that the answer portrayed an inflated self-view. Agreement with terms such as "self-centered", "entitled", and "needy" were then used as an indication that the answer suggested a high level of entitlement. After approximately 10-15 evaluations of each response, I examined trends in perceived self-views and entitlement, and chose to either drop specific responses that were not clearly influencing the desired construct, or modify individual responses to form a more clear manipulation. While the strength of each answer varied, my primary goal was avoiding crossover between the manipulation of inflated self-views and entitlement. I used this iterative process to create the final 32 profile answers and 8 businesses plan comments provided in Appendix 1. Results from a pretest of the 32 profile answers are provided in Table 2. Although some manipulations still exhibited crossover between perceptions of the target's inflated self-views and entitlement, likely due to general positive or negative feelings regarding the target, the manipulations had stronger and more significant effects on the intended perceptions.

Dependent Variables

Warmth and Competence: After reading all of the profiles, participants evaluated the warmth and competence of each confederate. On a scale of 1 –"Strongly Disagree" to 7 –"Strongly Agree" the participant was asked to evaluate the extent to which twenty-four trait adjectives describe each of the team members (Abele, Uchronski, Suitner, & Wojciszke, 2008). Perceived warmth was measured with the terms "caring", "helpful", "sensitive", "sympathetic", "trustworthy", "loyal", "polite", and "understanding" along with reverse scores on the items "conceited", "dominant", "egotistic", and "hardhearted". Perceived competence was then measured with traits terms "able", "assertive", "independent", "intelligent", "rational", "active", "creative" and "self-reliant" along with reverse scores on the items "insecure", "lazy", "shy", and "vulnerable". The Cronbach's alpha reliability estimates of the 12-item measure of perceived warmth and the 12-item measure of perceived competence were .95 and .92 respectively.

Information Sharing: The participant was given an opportunity to communicate information from a given style guide to each of the confederate group members. Each participant was given a stack of five index cards of various colors, each color matching a member of the team. The participant was told to put an "X" on his or her own color and then, if they desired, use the other cards to communicate directly with specific members of their team. In addition to information from the style guide, many participants also chose to share their own suggestions or information with specific group members. Information sharing was calculated as the total number of words written on a specific confederate's index card.

Helping: The participant was given an opportunity to help other group members earn a potential reward by allocating them a certain number of tickets in a drawing. The number of tickets allocated to each confederate was used as a measure of the participant's willing to help that specific confederate.

Chapter 5: Results, Lab Experiment

LAB EXPERIMENT ANALYSIS:

I predicted, in Hypotheses 1-4, that inflated self-views and entitlement would influence participant behaviors. I first examined whether presenting the confederate with an inflated self-view and/or high entitlement would influence the participant's willingness to share information with a particular confederate. Of the participants who completed the information sharing task, I did not find a significant effect for either inflated self-views ($F(1,73)=.27$, $p=.60$) or entitlement ($F(1,73)=.22$, $p=.64$) on participant information sharing. In other words, this lab experiment did not provide support either Hypothesis 1 or 2. The only factors found to influence information sharing were the participant's age ($F=4.03$, $P<.05$) and gender ($F=7.59$, $P<.01$), such that women and younger participants shared more information, suggesting the presence of a strong actor effect.

I next examined whether characteristics of each confederate influenced the participant's helping behavior as directed toward that particular member of the team. Hypothesis 3 was not supported as the confederate's inflated self-views had no direct effect on helping behavior ($F(1,109)=.00$, $p=1.00$). Hypothesis 4, however, was supported as I found significant negative effect of confederate entitlement ($F(1,109)=76.72$, $p<.001$) on participant helping. In other words, the participant was significantly less willing to help a confederate who was presented as being entitled.

I also hypothesized a direct positive effect of a confederate team member's inflated self-views on perceptions of the confederate's warmth and competence. Contrary to Hypothesis 5, a 2X2 (self-views, entitlement) within subjects ANOVA revealed that a confederate's inflated self-views had a significant negative effect on perceptions of the confederate's warmth ($F(1,111)=61.67$, $p<.001$). As predicted in Hypothesis 7, confederates who were presented as having inflated self-views were seen as being more competent ($F(1,111)=211.46$, $p<.001$). In other words, while displaying inflated self-views may lead to increased perceptions of competence, these displays can simultaneously lead to decreased perceptions of warmth.

I also predicted that the confederate's level of entitlement would have a negative effect on perceptions of both the confederate's warmth and competence. As predicted in Hypotheses 6 & 8, confederates who were presented as being high on entitlement were seen as both less warm ($F(1,111)=223.52$, $p<.01$) and less competent ($F(1,111)=44.49$, $p<.01$).

In Hypotheses 9b & 11b, I predicted that the relationship between inflated self-views and the amount of help received would be mediated by perceptions of warmth and competence. Bootstrapped confidence intervals reveal a 95% bias-corrected interval that is entirely above zero for competence (.05 to .78) and entirely below zero for warmth (-.67 to -.27) perceptions. In other words, while inflated self-views had no direct effect on participant helping, the employee's self-views have a positive indirect effect through competence perceptions and a negative indirect effect through warmth perceptions. These two indirect effects then wash each other out when looking at the overall effect of inflated self-views on helping behavior.

Hypotheses 10b & 12b similarly predicted that the effect of entitlement on helping behavior would be mediated by perceptions of warmth and competence. Bootstrapped confidence intervals revealed a 95% bias-corrected interval that is entirely below zero for both warmth (-1.69 to -.80) and competence (-.40 to -.03) perceptions. This suggests that the negative effect of entitlement on helping behavior is mediated by perceptions of both the confederate's warmth and competence. Lastly, I predicted in Hypotheses 13 & 14 a potential interaction between the confederate's inflated self-views and demonstrated entitlement on any of my dependent variables. No significant interactions appeared in any of the above analyses.

LAB EXPERIMENT SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

This experiment examined the separate effects of a confederate's inflated self-view and entitlement on a participant's behavior. Unlike previous research, which assumed that individuals with inflated views of their own abilities also hold detrimental interpersonal beliefs, I created a separate manipulation of inflated self-views and psychological entitlement. I suggested that, for example,

whether an employee believed they knew a great deal about particular topics was different than whether they believed that they deserved special treatment.

I found that participants were less willing to help a confederate when that confederate was projected as having a high level of entitlement. The effect of entitlement was mediated by perceptions of the confederate's warmth and competence. Although the confederate's inflated self-views did not directly influence the participant's behavior, inflated self-views had a positive indirect effect through competence perceptions and a negative indirect effect through perceptions of the confederate's warmth. These effects were present despite a potentially low level of interdependence in the group task, and effects may be even stronger for tasks in which the participant's success is reliant upon the abilities and motivations of other team members.

Chapter 6: Methodology, Field Study

STUDY 2: FIELD STUDY OF INDIVIDUALS RESPONDING IN PROJECT TEAMS

This investigation was a series of three surveys completed by members of ongoing student project teams. Survey 1 was an initial questionnaire to establish characteristics related to each group member's inflated self-views and entitlement prior to formation of the team. In survey 2, completed mid-way through the group project, members of the group were asked to make judgments of each group member's warmth and competence. At the end of the semester, after the project had been submitted for a grade, group members completed survey 3, in which they reflected upon their own specific behaviors toward each member of the group.

Participants

Potential participants for this study included approximately 510 students from 18 sections of the BA324 Business Communication course at the University of Texas at Austin. Survey 1 was completed by a total of 420 students, yielding an 83% initial response rate. A total of 403 students, a 79% response rate, then completed survey 2. Lastly, 379 students completed Survey 3, for a 74% response rate. While these response rates may on their own appear relatively high, respondents had to answer questions on all three surveys and also have peer evaluations from both Survey 2 and Survey 3 to be included in my analysis. Of the initial 420 participants who completed Survey 1, a total of 272 (147 male and 125 female) had received complete evaluations from at least three peers on both of the follow-up surveys and were included in my final analysis. The mean age of participants was 19.75 years. The overall inclusion rate was 54% of the initial sample, with a total of 87 groups of 4-6 students being represented in this study.

There were no significant differences between the initial sample, and the final participant group with regard to their gender ($F=.44$, $p=.51$), age ($F=.32$, $p=.57$), extraversion ($F=1.38$, $p=.24$), agreeableness ($F=.06$, $P=.80$), conscientiousness ($F=.01$, $p=.94$), emotional stability ($F=.42$, $p=.51$), accuracy on the over-claiming task ($F=1.01$, $p=.31$), inflated self-views ($F=1.1$, $p=.30$), or level of entitlement ($F=2.2$, $p=.14$). There were also no significant differences in peer ratings of participants

versus non-participants in terms of warmth (F=.27, p=.60), help received (F=.03, p=.86), or information received (F=.16, p=.69). There was a difference in the perceived competence (F=7.28, p<.01) between the initial and final samples. This difference may be due to the included population having a greater number of judges than those excluded from the final sample, or the difference may be due to chance. The means and standard deviations between potential and final participant groups are presented in Table 5.

Procedure

Survey data were collected in three waves throughout the course of the semester designed to address the flow of effects within the model. Survey 1, containing independent variables, was distributed during the first portion of the semester. Survey 1 measured each participant's inflated self-views and entitlement. These measures were embedded within a series of other questions to mask the true purpose of this study. Survey 1 also included control variables such as the individual's age, gender, "big 5" personality characteristics, and other demographic variables. Survey 2, containing the mediating variables, was completed approximately midway through the group project. In Survey 2, participants gave their impressions of each group member's warmth and competence based upon their initial interactions together. Survey 3, containing the dependent variables, was completed after the group project but before participants received their final grades. In survey 3, participants were asked to rate the extent to which they helped and shared information with each member of the group throughout the semester. Participants were clearly told that none of this information would affect grade allocations and that they should answer as honestly as possible.

Independent Measures

Inflated Self-Views: I operationalized each participant's inflated self-views using the over-claiming measure (Paulhus et al., 2003). This measures determines the individual's implicit perception of their own competence. Over-claiming refers to the tendency for an individual to assert knowledge about non-existent items (Phillips & Clancy, 1972). Measuring an individual's tendency to over-claim can indicate their idiosyncratic response biases related to a particular topic. For example, Randall and

Fernandes (1991) used over-claiming as a control for a participant's social desirability biases in self-reports of unethical behavior.

Paulhus and colleagues (2003) developed an over-claiming measure that addresses an individual's general tendency to hold inflated self-views (Paulhus et al., 2003). The Over-Claiming Questionnaire-150 (OCQ-150) has respondents rate their familiarity with 150 items of cultural literacy. For example, the participant is asked to rate their familiarity with the term "art deco" on a scale of "0 – Never heard of it" to "4 – Very Familiar". These questions are broken down into 10 categories: historical names and events, fine arts, languages, books and poems, authors and characters, social science and law, physical sciences, life sciences, popular culture, and current consumer products. Of the fifteen items within each category three are foils, items that appear plausible but are actually fictitious.

Using the signal detection analysis (SDA) as outlined in Paulhus et al. (2003), I was able to calculate a measure of the individual's inflated self-views. SDA involves categorizing responses into four categories (a) *hits*, claims that existing items are familiar; (b) *false alarms*, claims that foil items are familiar; (c) *misses*, claims that existing items are unfamiliar; and (d) *correct rejections*, claims that foil items are unfamiliar. An individual's accuracy related to a specific topic can be calculated as the proportion of real items with which they indicated familiarity relative to the proportion of foil items with which they indicated some level of familiarity.

Although it is tempting to use only the false alarms when calculating an individual's bias, an employee's inflated self-view influence both their responses to both existing and foil items. Additionally, the false alarm rate may correlate with the hit rate confounding an individual's inflated self-views with their actual knowledge of the subject. I instead follow the recommendation of Paulhus et al. (2003) to use the criterion location measure as described in Macmillian and Creelman (1991). The criterion location is a standardized estimate of how strong an individual's sense of familiarity must be before they will indicate familiarity with the item (Macmillan & Creelman, 1991). The individual's inflated self-view, or bias, is then calculated as the proportion of hits plus the proportion of false-alarms.

(Formula 1)

$$Bias = \frac{z\left[\frac{hits}{\#\ true\ items}\right] + z\left[\frac{false\ alarms}{\#\ foils}\right]}{2}$$

There are three major advantages to using over-claiming as a measure of an individual's inflated self-views as compared to other measures of overconfidence. First, over-claiming specifically addresses the individual's self-views independent of how they see others or their level of concern for others. Second, over-claiming is independent of an individual's actual competence, and the over-claiming measure can be used to compute separate values for the individual's actual competence and their inflated self-view (Paulhus & Harms, 2004; Paulhus et al., 2003). Lastly, as over-claiming is implicitly measured, participants are less able to distort their responses due to a social desirability bias.

Entitlement: I measure each individual's level of psychological entitlement with the initial questionnaire. The psychological entitlement measure (Campbell et al., 2004a) has been linked to a number of social outcomes, such as an individual's willingness to take candy from children as well as demonstrations of low concern for others in a common's dilemma (Campbell et al., 2004a). This specific scale was selected because it has been found to be reliable, valid, stable across time, and unrelated to social desirability biases (Campbell et al., 2004a).

Predicted Mediators

Warmth and Competence: Perceived warmth and competence were computed as the average of at least three peer ratings of the individual's warmth and competence. On a scale of 1 –"Strongly Disagree" to 7 –"Strongly Agree" peer raters were asked to evaluate the extent to which each of twenty-four trait adjectives, derived from Abele et al. (2008), describe each member of their team. The individual's perceived warmth was measured with the traits terms "caring", "helpful", "sensitive", "sympathetic", "trustworthy", "loyal", "polite", and "understanding" along with reverse scores on the

items “conceited”, “dominant”, “egotistic”, and “hardhearted”. The participant’s perceived competence was measured with the traits terms “able”, “assertive”, “independent”, “intelligent”, “rational”, “active”, “creative” and “self-reliant” along with reverse scores on the items “insecure”, “lazy”, “shy”, and “vulnerable”. These terms were selected due to their consistent association with the fundamental dimensions of communion/warmth/morality and agency/competence across various settings (Abele, Uchronski, Suitner, & Wojciszke, 2008).

Dependent Measures

Help Received: The extent to which an individual received help from their peers was measured using four items derived from Podsakoff, Ahearnes, et al. (1997). This survey included questions about the group member’s willingness to help each individual peer. With reference to peer X: each group member stated agreement on a scale of 1 – “Strongly Disagree” to 7 – “Strongly Agree”, with the statements “I was willing to help X if he/she fell behind in his/her work”, “I encouraged X if he/she were feeling down”, “I was willing to take steps to try to prevent X from having problems”, and “I willingly gave my time to help X with work-related problems.” The dependent variable Help Received, for person X, was then calculated as the mean of helping responses targeted at person X as rated by members of their group. In other words, Help Received is the average amount that others helped person X.

Information Received: The dependent variable for information sharing was created using three items addressing the extent to which each team member shared information with person X on a scale of 1 – “Strongly Disagree” to 7 – “Strongly Agree”. These items, derived from Bunderson and Sutcliffe (2002), were “I was willing to share information with X that was used to make key decisions”, “I kept X up to date on my project activities”, and “I kept X ‘in the loop’ about key issues affecting our project”. Information Received for person X was then calculated as the mean of the information sharing questions as directed toward person X by his or her peers. In other words, Information Received is the average amount that others in the team shared information with person X.

Control Variables

A number of individual differences may influence employee self-perceptions, how the employee is perceived, and how coworkers behave toward the focal employee. The gender of the focal individual is one variable that influences both the independent and dependent constructs in this study. Men are more likely to have an inflated view of their abilities (Foster et al., 2003), while women receive more help from others when compared to their male counterparts (Eagly & Crowley, 1986). Similarly, age has been related to both an individual's inflated self-views as well as their level of entitlement (Foster et al., 2003; Twenge & Campbell, 2009). As most participants in the study fit a very specific profile, differentiations based on age may also influence judgments of the focal person either through demonstrating their uniqueness or similarity to the judge (Alicke et al., 1995; Sears, 1983).

Another set of characteristics to consider relate to the focal individual's personality. A coworker's behaviors may be based upon social-exchange expectations (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). Conscientious employees are more likely to help others (Konovsky & Organ, 1996; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002) and as a result may be seen as better exchange targets. An individual's personality may also influence peer judgments of the focal individual, with shyness being mistaken for a lack of competence (Paulhus & Morgan, 1997). Two personality traits, conscientiousness and emotional stability, serve as consistent predicators of an individual's motivation across tasks (Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001). Although there is not unanimous agreement as to which personality factors are of greatest importance in any situation, personality psychologists have more or less converged on five basic factors that are consistent across cultures and languages (Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann, 2003; Mount & Barrick, 1998). These "Big-5" personality traits of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness have been associated with citizenship behaviors (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001b; Organ, 1994), job performance (Hurtz & Donovan, 2000), and career success (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999).

Lastly, predictions that are made utilizing the over-claiming questionnaire as a measure of an individual's inflated self-view are always assessed after controlling for the individual's accuracy score

(Paulhus et al., 2003). By controlling for accuracy I maintain that effects are due to an individual's inflated self-views rather than realistic self-confidence. In each of my analysis I control for the target individual's age, gender, Big-5 personality traits, and accuracy on the over-claiming task.

Chapter 7: Results, Field Study

FIELD STUDY ANALYSIS

Divergent Validity

Much of the recent discussion regarding inflated self-view utilizes measures of narcissism. Yet, recent research has demonstrated that rather than being a singular cohesive construct, narcissism is actually the conglomeration of multiple dimensions of an individual's self-concept (Ackerman et al., 2011; Brown et al., 2009; Corry et al., 2008; Rosenthal & Hooley, 2010; Rosenthal, Montoya, Ridings, Rieck, & Hooley, 2011). A primary assumption of this research is the ability to separate an individual's inflated self-view from their level of entitlement. Although both constructs are part of narcissism, I suggest that they are measurably distinct and have uniquely identifiable effects. To test this assumption I examined the convergent validity of inflated self-views and entitlement with a singular measure or narcissism, as well as the divergence of inflated self-views from entitlement (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). As a measure of narcissism I utilized the 16-item Narcissistic Grandiosity Scale, which was designed to capture narcissism already disconfounded from an individual's self-esteem (Rosenthal et al., 2007). This particular scale has been highly correlated with the commonly used Narcissistic Personality Inventory (Brown et al., 2009). I also found this scale to have a .948 Cronbach's alpha estimated reliability. Table 6 includes descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the measures of inflated self-views, entitlement, and narcissism. As expected, narcissism was significantly and positively correlated with both the individual's inflated self-view ($r=.16$, $p<.01$) and their level of entitlement ($r=.41$, $p<.01$). However, as a demonstration of divergent validity, inflated self-views and entitlement were not significantly correlated ($r=.08$, $p=.11$) with each other. This suggests that, although inflated self-views and entitlement both relate to narcissism, they also represent distinct portions of the individual's overall self-concept.

Scale and Inter-Rater Reliability

The reliability of the self-report measure of psychological entitlement was calculated for all 420 participants who had completed survey 1, resulting in a .85 Cronbach's alpha reliability estimate for the 9-item scale. In order to test the reliability of the over-claiming measure, each of the 10 knowledge domains were scored separately. Substantial estimated reliabilities were found across domains with regard to the number of hits (.90), false alarms (.90), overall accuracy (.75), and bias (.92). This consistency suggested that the same individuals were over-claiming across knowledge domains (Paulhus et al., 2003). In addition to the analyses above, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis in AMOS on the self-reported items in the entitlement, narcissism, and Big-5 personality scales, as well as the accuracy and bias scores within the 10 separate knowledge domains. The model shows a reasonable, but not good, fit to the data. The RMSEA was above .05 (.064, 90% confidence interval = .061 to .067), but was below .08. The Chi-squared for the model was 2951.3 (df=1394).

I calculated the scale reliability of peer perceptions of warmth and competence using all 1550 observer-target pairings from survey 2. The Cronbach's alpha reliability estimates of the 12-item measure of perceived warmth and the 12-item measure of perceived competence were .90 and .90 respectively. Lastly, the amount of help and information an individual received was based upon the reported action of their teammates as directed toward the target individual. I used all 1475 actor-target pairings from survey 3 to calculate the reliability of the measures for help and information given to each group member. These scales had Cronbach's alpha reliability estimates of .82 for the 4-item measure of help given to the target, and .82 for the 3-item measure of information shared with the target.

I calculated Inter-rater Agreement (IRA) for the warmth and competence evaluations that each member of the team received from their peers utilizing the rwg calculation (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). I first calculated the observed variance for each of the 295 participates who had received 3 or more peer ratings on both survey 2 and survey 3. Following common convention I relied upon a uniform, or rectangular, null distribution, which for a 7-point scale gives an expected null variance of 4 (LeBreton, Burgess, Kaiser, Atchley, & James, 2003; LeBreton & Senter, 2008). The mean rwg for

each variable was then calculated across all participants. The mean rwg values for perceived warmth and perceived competence were .69 and .67 respectively. These rwg values are lower than appear in other contexts due to the atypical use of this calculation. Whereas most examinations use rwg as a measure of agreement regarding a team-level factor, participants in this study were asked to evaluate separate individuals within the team. As dyadic relationships differ between individuals, one would expect greater variance in how team members experience and interpret an individual's behavior relative to their interpretation of team-level factors.

As helping and information sharing behaviors are largely a function of the actor rather than the target of the behavior, I examined the convergence between the average amount that peers reported helping an individual, and the amount of help that the individual reported having received. There was a significant correlation between the amount of help an individual said he or she received and the average amount of help peer reported giving to that individual ($r=.19$, $p<.01$). A similar relationship was not found between self and peer reports regarding the amount of information the individual received ($r=.05$, $p=.43$).

Model Testing

This research was designed to determine the influence of an individual's inflated self-views and entitlement on team member perceptions of and behaviors toward the focal individual. I first examined the effect of the individual's inflated self-view and entitlement on peer behaviors toward the focal individual. Hypothesis 1 & 2 suggested that both an individual's inflated self-views and level of entitlement would be associated with the amount of information that the individual received from others. While controlling for the individual's age, gender, personality characteristics, and accuracy on the over-claiming scale, self-reported measures of the individual's inflated self-views and entitlement were regressed on the amount of help that the individual received. In support of Hypothesis 1, the focal individual's inflated self-view had a significant positive effect ($t[271]=2.04$, $p<.05$) on how much information was received, suggesting that individuals holding inflated views of their own abilities received more information those with more realistic self-views. Hypothesis 2 was not supported, as

the individual's level of entitlement did not directly influence peer information sharing. I next examined the effect of an individual's inflated self-views and entitlement on coworker helping behaviors. Contrary to Hypotheses 3 & 4, neither inflated self-views nor entitlement directly influenced the amount of help an individual received.

I next considered the potential influence of an individual's inflated self-views and entitlement on perceptions of the individual's warmth and competence. In partial support of Hypothesis 5, I found a marginally positive ($t[271]=1.81$, $p=.07$) relationship between the individual's inflated self-views and perceptions of the individual's warmth. As predicted in Hypothesis 6, I also found a negative relationship ($t[271]=-2.88$, $p<.01$) between entitlement and perceptions of the individual's warmth. Contrary to Hypothesis 7, I did not find any relationship between the individual's inflated self-views and perceived competence. I did however find support for Hypothesis 8, as entitlement negatively related to the individual's perceived competence ($t[271]=-2.08$, $p<.05$).

In order to better understand the causes of peer behavior, I then considered warmth and competence perceptions as potential mediators between the focal individual's beliefs and peer helping and information sharing. As current thinking about mediation analysis does not require that a total effect be demonstrated prior to the estimation of indirect effects (Hayes, 2009; Hayes, Preacher, Tormala, & Petty, 2011), I considered the potential indirect effects from both inflated self-views and entitlement. Because techniques such as the Sobel test assume normality within the sampling distributions (Sobel, 1982), I instead used bootstrapping to estimate the simultaneous direct and indirect effects of the individual's inflated self-views following the PROCESS procedure as outlined by Hayes (2012). Bootstrapping is a statistical method that estimates the parameters and standard errors of the model from repeatedly sampling of the initial data and estimating the indirect effect in each resampled data set (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Bootstrapping is particularly useful for models where multiple mediators, for example both warmth and competence perceptions, are predicted to work simultaneously (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

I first considered potential indirect effects of the individual's inflated self-views on peer information sharing and helping behaviors. When looking at the effect of inflated self-views on the

amount of information received, a comparison of bootstrapped confidence intervals reveals 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals that are entirely above zero for warmth (.00 to .15) but not for competence perceptions (-.04 to .10). As a result, Hypothesis 9a is supported, whereas there was no support for Hypothesis 11a. Looking at the relationship between inflated self-views and the amount of help received, confidence intervals were again entirely above zero for warmth (.00 to .08) but not competence (-.06 to .11) perceptions, supporting Hypothesis 9b but not 11b. Taken together these results suggest that judgments of an individual's warmth mediate the relationship between the individual's inflated self-views and coworker behaviors.

I then used the same procedure to determine whether there were indirect effects between entitlement and peer behaviors. I started by examining the indirect effects between entitlement and the amount information an individual received. In support of Hypothesis 10a and 12a, a comparison of bootstrapped confidence intervals reveals a 95% bias-corrected interval that is entirely below zero for both warmth (-.06 to -.01) and competence perceptions (-.05 to -.00). This indicates that while entitlement does not directly diminish peer information sharing, the negative effect of entitlement on peer judgments of the individual's warmth and competence may indirectly decrease the amount of information that the individual receives from others.

An individual's level of entitlement has similar indirect effects on peer helping. When looking at the effect of entitlement on helping behavior, bootstrapped confidence intervals again reveal a 95% bias-corrected interval that is entirely below zero through both warmth (-.03 to -.00) and competence (-.05 to -.00), demonstrating support for both Hypothesis 10b and 12b. Again, while entitlement does not directly affect these specific peer behaviors, the effect of entitlement on peer judgments of an employee's warm and competence may indirectly influence the amount of help and information that the employee receives from others.

Hypotheses 13 & 14 predicted a potential interactive effect of an individual's inflated self-views and entitlement on perceptions of the individual's warmth and competence. I did not however find an interactive effect of inflated self-views and entitlement with regard to either warmth ($t[271]=.89$, $p=.37$) or competence ($t[271]-.23$, $p=.82$) perceptions.

Supplemental Analysis

Probably the most important observation in this study relates to the signs of these effects. Whereas an individual's inflated self-views positively influence coworker helping and information sharing, the individual's entitlement has a negative effect on these same coworker behaviors. In other words, the effects of inflated self-views and entitlement counteract each other. As a result, an analysis that does not separate these constructs, but rather utilizes a single measure of narcissism, may not be able to identify the ongoing processes.

To test this assumption, I reran each of the analyses above utilizing a single measure of narcissism. Although narcissism is significantly correlated with both the individual's inflated self-view and entitlement, narcissism does not affect peer judgments of an individual's warmth or competence. There are also no direct or indirect effects of narcissism on the amount of information that individuals received from their peers or on peer helping behavior. The lack of results when using a single measure of narcissism reinforces the need to consider the individual's inflated self-views and entitlement as separate components of the overall self-concept.

FIELD STUDY SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

This field study examined the separate effects of an individual's inflated self-view and entitlement on peer behaviors directed toward that individual. Unlike previous research, which assumed that individuals with inflated views of their own abilities also held detrimental interpersonal beliefs, I examined inflated self-views and psychological entitlement as separate components of the self-concept. I suggested that, for example, whether an employee believed they knew a great deal about particular topics was different than whether they believed that they deserved special treatment.

I found that the decision to share information with an individual was affected by the individual's self-views. Self-enhancing individuals were more likely to receive information than others who held more realistic self-views. Holding inflated views of one's own abilities also had an indirect effect, through perceptions of the individual's warmth, on the amount of help an individual

received from others. Although an individual's level of entitlement does not directly affect peer behaviors, it should not be completely discounted. Individuals high on psychological entitlement were viewed as both less warm and less competent by their coworkers. These perceptions then formed an indirect link between an individual's psychological entitlement and a peer's ultimate willingness (or lack thereof) to help and share information with the individual. Due to this indirect effect, entitled individuals ultimately received less help and information from their peers.

Chapter 8: General Discussion and Implications

DISCUSSION

There is an interesting, and somewhat counterintuitive, debate about whether holding an inflated view of one's own abilities is good or bad, sustaining or defeating. Donald Trump touted, "Show me someone without an ego, and I'll show you a loser" (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). Yet many important figures, such as Henry Ford, have failed to control their grandiosity and ended up hurting not only themselves but also the people who worked with them (Maccoby, 2007). While these are merely examples, the research on inflated self-views is not much more conclusive. The real story may thus lie in the ambiguity of how we understand this aspect of the self.

Do an employee's inflated self-views relate positively or negatively to interpersonal outcomes? In both a field and a laboratory investigation I found that, by distinguishing between the previously confounded constructs of an individual's inflated self-views and entitlement, some initial light could be shed on this question. I demonstrated that while inflated self-views may have positive effects on coworker behaviors, an individual's entitlement beliefs have a detrimental effect. These findings offer meaningful theoretical contributions to the literatures on narcissism, organizational citizenship and information sharing behaviors, as well as group attributions. Co-occurrence of inflated self-views and entitlement is also prevalent within managerial and public discourse. As a result, the demonstration of the contradictory effects from these constructs may have implications beyond the academic debate.

THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

First and foremost, my primary contribution lies in the theoretical and empirical separation of inflated self-views from entitlement, and a potential explanation for the conflicting findings regarding the interpersonal consequences of holding inflated self-views. Past efforts to examine the influences of inflated self-views, using constructs such as narcissism or overconfidence, have often found themselves with contradictory or ambiguous results. Some studies suggest that when employees hold an inflated view of their own abilities they will be seen more positively, with coworkers evaluating

them as happier, more optimistic, and more competent than their peers (Paulhus, 1998; Robins & Beer, 2001). These employees may also be considered more socially adjusted and have a greater ability to motivate members of their group (Hiller & Hambrick, 2005; Kurt & Paulhus, 2008). Other research has found that employees with inflated self-views end up being judged negatively, with self-enhancing individuals being seen as more arrogant, bragging, hostile, defensive, psychologically maladjusted, and less socially skilled than others (Colvin et al., 1995; John & Robins, 1994; Paulhus, 1998). Previous studies have also suggested both positive and negative relationships between an individual's inflated self-views and manager evaluations of an individual's performance (Chemers, Watson, & May, 2000).

This research clarifies some of the confusion, demonstrating that many of the positive outcomes that accrue to individuals holding exaggerated beliefs in their own abilities are directly due to the individual's inflated self-views, while many of the negative interpersonal outcomes described in previous research may be due to the confounding of the individual's self-views with their level of entitlement, or feeling they deserve more than others. Specifically, whereas inflated self-views may have a positive effect on coworker percpetions of an employee, the employee's entitlement beliefs may negatively influence coworker judgments of the employee's warmth and competence. These judgments in turn affect coworker behaviors toward the employee. As a result, an employee's inflated self-views may lead them to receive more information from their coworkers, whereas being high on entitlement is negatively associated with the amount of information received from others. An individual's level of entitlement, not his or her inflated self-views, may be responsible for coworkers forming negative impressions of an employee. Contrary to some previous research, holding inflated views of one's abilities may be directly beneficial, as long as these beliefs are not coupled with a sense of entitlement. My findings suggest that rather than focusing on only one aspect of an individual's self-concept, researchers should simultaneously, yet independently, consider related portions of an employee's egocentric beliefs.

Second, this research expands the discussion of inflated self-views to more fully recognize the interpersonal consequences related to these beliefs. Previous research has shown that an individual's inflated self-views affect the same individual's decisions, for example, how they choose to see the

world (Bonanno, Field, Kovacevic, & Kaltman, 2002), their ability to cope with problems (Taylor & Armor, 1996), and whether they will change bad habits (Haaga & Stewart, 1992). Other studies have examined how a CEO's inflated self-views influence organizational strategies, such as the firm's propensity for taking risks (Li & Tang, 2010), the number and size of acquisitions (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007), and the amount of resources given to a new venture (Hayward et al., 2006). Although these decisions ultimately affect everyone within the organization, the decision itself starts with the self-enhancing individual. This research steps beyond the individual, demonstrating that an employee's inflated beliefs about his or her own abilities have broader interpersonal implications and can influence their coworker's decisions.

Third, this research makes specific contributions to the literature on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), of which peer helping is a component. Most of this literature describes characteristics of the actor that lead to their own helping behaviors (Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Lester, Meglino, & Korsgaard, 2008; Organ, 1994). While external influences on citizenship behaviors have been considered, previous research has focused on the collective support or antagonism from all coworkers rather than simply the individual receiving assistance (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). This research shows more broadly how the target's characteristics influence the amount of help that he or she receives. While an employee's willingness to perform citizenship behaviors has clear implications for both personal and team performance, the ability to solicit citizenship behaviors from others may be equally important.

Finally, this research takes a step in identifying the psychological mechanisms that influence an actor's behavior as directed toward a specific employee. Although perceptions of the target's warmth and competence are obviously not the only perceptions that influence peer behaviors, these two dimensions of social judgment are fundamental to understanding interpersonal behavior (Cuddy et al., 2008; Fiske et al., 2007; Judd et al., 2005). I found that perceptions of both an individual's warmth and competence are positively associated with that individual receiving help and information from others. I also discovered that an individual's feelings of entitlement indirectly influence coworker behaviors through peer judgments of the individual's warmth and competence. These findings suggest

that rather than focusing only on the relationship between employee characteristics and peer behaviors, it is important to consider how characteristics of the employee influence interpersonal judgments.

METHODOLOGICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

While I am by far not the first scholar to recognize problems with the current omnibus perspective of inflated self-views (Colvin et al., 1995; Kwan et al., 2004; Miller, Price, & Campbell, 2012; Moore & Healy, 2008; Paulhus et al., 2003; Rosenthal & Hooley, 2010), this research makes specific advances in the techniques commonly used to investigate this area. First, previous researchers have described narcissism as the combination of both adaptive and maladaptive components of an individual's self-concept, with the individual's level of entitlement being responsible for many of the negative interpersonal consequences associated with so called narcissistic personalities (Corry et al., 2008; Watson & Biderman, 1993). Yet, studies attempting to differentiate an individual's inflated self-views from entitlement have typically relied on self-report measures for both predictor and dependent measures (ex. Brown et al., 2009). My field study, on the other hand, utilizes an implicit measure of the individual's inflated self-view as well as externally sourced dependent measures. In so doing this research takes a step toward demonstrating that the separation an individual's inflated self-views and entitlement can be done without common source biases.

Second, previous studies that claimed to make explicit the distinction between an individual's inflated self-view and entitlement have also relied heavily upon Rosenthal's (2007) narcissistic grandiosity scale as their measure of an individual's inflated self-view (ex. Brown et al., 2009). Although a useful measure of narcissism, the narcissistic grandiosity scale was designed to identify components of narcissism unrelated to self-esteem, not to distinguish between an individual's inflated self-views and entitlement. As such, the narcissistic grandiosity scale is not, as previously purported, immune to the confounding influence of entitlement. Unlike other measures of inflated self-views, I demonstrate that over-claiming does not confound the individual's inflated self-view with entitlement, making it a more valid indicator of an individual's inflated self-views.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Differing Effects of Inflated Self-views on Perceived Warmth

While many of my results were consistent between the field and lab investigations, one important difference stood out. Unlike the filed study, in which inflated self-views had a positive effect on coworker perceptions of both the individual's warmth and competence, the lab experiment found a negative effect of inflated self-views on perceived warmth. There are at least two differences between the investigations that may explain why warmth perceptions were positive in the field study but negative in the lab experiment. First, individuals have an opportunity to express their self-views in a number of different ways (Miller et al., 1992). For example, inflated self-views may be expressed as confidence in one's own ability to succeed personally, or in the ability to help the team achieve success. The belief that an individual's stated abilities will help others, not just themselves, may be necessary for inflated self-views to positively influence observer ratings of the target's warmth. Because the lab manipulations were not directly related to the group task, participants might not have anticipated any group benefit from the confederate's self-proclaimed abilities. Instead, participants may have compensated for the confederate's seemingly elevated competence by rating them lower on warmth (Yzerbyt, Kervyn, & Judd, 2008). The field study, on the other hand, provided participants ample opportunity to recognize how each individual's expressed abilities might benefit the group. As a result, inflated self-views in the field study resulted in higher perceptions of the individual's warmth.

Second, I had argued that an individual's inflated self-views would lead to elevated perceptions of the individual's warmth at least partially due to the individual's implicit egotism, or self-expansion, and the associated tendency to speak favorably of others on their team. Such ingratiation might then lead to stronger relationships between the individual and his or her teammates, and ultimately more positive evaluations of the individual's warmth (Gordon, 1996; Shrauger & Jones, 1968). While it is likely that, within the field context, inflated self-views resulted in ingratiatory behavior toward others and expressions of team efficacy, the laboratory manipulations focused solely on expressions of the confederate's own self-views. In the absence of social expansion, expressions of the confederate's inflated self-views may have come across as boastful, arrogant, or even hostile (Paulhus, 1998).

Consistent with the lab results, while boasting and hostility lead to increased perceptions of an individual's competence, individuals seen as boasting will be liked less then those who more subtlety express their self-views (Kervyn et al., 2009; Miller et al., 1992). As a result, the lack of self-expansion in the lab study may have been responsible for the negative effect of inflated self-views on perceptions of the confederate's warmth. Future research should consider the different reactions that may occur when inflated views are restricted to the self versus when the inflated views are expanded to include other members of the team.

Other Limitations

This research addressed the distinction between an individual's inflated self-views and their level of entitlement as these beliefs affect coworker behaviors. The purpose of making this distinction was to begin disentangling inflated self-views from other internally held beliefs. While there are compelling theoretical and practical reasons to separate inflated self-views from entitlement, the same can be said for a number of other confounding factors. It has been suggested, that, to really understand narcissism we must separate a narcissist's inflated-self views from their self-esteem (Rosenthal & Hooley, 2010). Further research should consider the potential interaction between an employee's inflated self-views and the employee's explicit and implicit self-esteem. Similarly, inflated self-views have often been confounded with the individual's beliefs about others (Kwan et al., 2004), making it difficult to determine whether someone thinks highly of themselves or poorly of others. Although my operationalization of inflated self-views does not include a social comparison component, future researchers may wish to consider the role that the focal individual's external perceptions play in this process.

The two behavioral outcomes examined in these investigations were the average helping and the average information sharing behavior within a group - as directed toward a specific member of that group. There are a number of challenges inherent in this type of investigation. An actor's helping behavior fluctuates over time dependent upon certain interpersonal perceptions (Spence et al., 2011), yet individual actor differences also supply a degree of consistency in their behavior (Organ & Lingl,

1995). In other words, although each target differentially influences the actor's behavior, it is difficult to deny that there is also be a strong actor effect. Furthermore, by examining the average amount that others helped or shared information with a specific person, there is some assumed consistency in the relationship between the target and each of his or her coworkers. It is alternatively possible that the target maintained different relationships with each coworker, in some cases masking or illuminating aspects of their self-concept. Because interactions within teams are often filled with such complexities, it may be easier to conduct future research of this type within a dyadic setting. An examination of purely dyadic relationship would allow researchers to consider behaviors directed toward a singular target while controlling for more general tendencies. This suggestion should be taken with a degree of caution. While many corollaries may be drawn between groups and dyads, there are also many differences. For example, groups tend to be less tolerant of negative coworkers than individual judges (Liden et al., 1999). As a result, the detrimental consequences of entitlement, as seen in a team context, may not appear to the same extent within dyadic relationships.

In both investigations, warmth and competence perceptions were examined as mediators of the relationship between the individual's beliefs and coworker behaviors, yet other mechanisms may also help in understanding this relationship. I encourage researchers to examine other perceptual, psychological, and behavioral mediators that may explain the associations that I observed. My theoretical arguments suggest that coworker judgments are formed as a response to employee beliefs, but only to the extent that those beliefs influence the employee's behavior. This suggests a number of potential moderators for future examination. Individual characteristics, such as the employee's impression management skills, may diminish the effect of entitlement on coworker judgments. Even if an employee believes that they are more deserving than others, they may put up a façade or carefully choose behaviors that will not portray this belief to others. The employee's level of discretion may also influence their behaviors, and as a result the relationship between the employee's beliefs and coworker reactions. Furthermore, in addition to an employee's behavior, coworkers often consider the outcome of that behavior when determining their response (Alicke, Davis, & Pezzo, 1994; Baron & Hershey, 1988). Inflated self-views have been linked with an increased propensity to take risks (Li &

Tang, 2010; Simon & Houghton, 2003). These risks can lead to either success or failure (Chatterjee & Hambrick, 2007). Research examining employee behaviors as a potential mediator should also consider the interaction of the chosen behavior with the valance of its outcome.

Previous research has also revealed that certain individual difference factors are more or less influential depending upon the context. For example, extraversion is related to job performance, but only when a significant portion of the job involves influencing others (Barrick et al., 2001). Similarly, agreeableness may be the most important personality characteristic, but only when the job requires high cooperation between coworkers (Mount & Barrick, 1998). Characteristics of a specific task may also affect the relative importance of the employee's inflated self-views and entitlement. If a task requires little interaction, coworkers may not recognize or care about a specific employee's self-views. On the other hand, when groups have high task or outcome interdependence an employee's beliefs may be of greater importance to their coworkers.

Group tenure may also influence the relationship between an employee's beliefs and coworker behaviors. Although previous research suggests that coworkers can quickly and accurately determine if someone is a narcissist, it is still somewhat unclear which facets of narcissism are most prominent in these judgments (Vazire et al., 2008). Coworkers in newly formed groups may accept a self-enhancing employee's positive self-presentation, yet these positive impressions can diminish over time (Paulhus, 1998). Furthermore, facets of an individual's self-concept that make them initially appealing may be the most destructive in the long term (Back et al., 2010). As a result, the length of time that the group has been together may influence the relationship between an employee's beliefs and coworker behaviors.

While this research offers several new insights into our understanding of behavior within team, the model would be more useful if expanded to include group performance. It has been suggested that the actions of a single team member may serve as a catalyst for team-level dysfunction (Felps, Mitchell, & Byington, 2006). In addition to the employee's actions, this research shows that an individual employee's beliefs, such as their level of entitlement, can also negatively affect coworker behaviors. The amount of helping behavior within a team has been positively linked with overall team

performance (Choi, 2009; Podsakoff et al., 1997), and performance may suffer whenever factors, such as an individual's level of entitlement, decrease helping behaviors.

On the other hand, an employee's influence may not always be negative. I demonstrate that an employee's inflated self-views may have a positive influence on the amount of communication within the team. The extent to which group members communicate is thus a non-trivial factor in determining group performance (De Dreu & Beersma, 2010; Mesmer-Magnus & DeChurch, 2009). It is said that groups have the potential to perform as well as their most knowledgeable member (Henry, 1995). If an individual's inflated self-views increase the amount of information that they receive, the entire team may benefit. Future research should expand upon this model, examining the ultimate influence of an individual's inflated self-views and entitlement on a variety of performance outcomes.

Another potential limitation of this research relates to the relative homogeneity of my samples, with both investigations utilizing undergraduate students from the University of Texas at Austin. This sample may limit the external applicability of my results in a number of ways. Both inflated self-views and entitlement are related to an individual's egocentrism. While any individual may hold egocentric beliefs, the prevalence of these beliefs differs across populations. Prior research shows that individual's with western backgrounds are more likely to score high on typical measures of narcissism (Twenge & Foster, 2008). Similarly, individuals currently in college score higher that those who graduated earlier and are currently in the work-force (Twenge et al., 2008a). In her book "Generation Me," Twenge (2006) points out that egocentric actions are not stigmatized in the eyes of current college students the way they were a few years ago. Although the prevalence of individuals in my sample with inflated self-views and high entitlement may be exaggerated due to my young and highly western sample, the permissibility of these egocentric self-views by college students makes it a potentially more conservative context in which to test this theory. The influence of inflated self-views and entitlement may be more salient, and have a greater influence on interpersonal outcomes, when examined in older populations. Furthermore, while this selection bias potentially limits the external validity of my results, it is not an uncommon problem. Much of the research in our field has focused on western populations, and undergraduate students are a common source for initial investigations of a

topic. Future research should examine these ideas in populations more representative of our current global economic environment.

My field study is focused on perceptions and behaviors within a group setting, demonstrating a positive association between an individual's inflated self-views and coworker information sharing. Yet the homogeneity of my sample may restrict the applicability of this finding. A growing area of interest for group research relates to the formation and implications of faultiness, or divisions between group members based upon certain characteristics of similarity or dissimilarity (Lau & Murnighan, 1998, 2005). Recent research has demonstrated that the presence or distribution of entitled individuals within a group can activate previously dormant faultlines, ultimately influencing group behaviors and performance (Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010). Although divisions may appear in any group, the presence of faultiness may be less likely in homogeneous groups. The relative similarity of group members in my sample may have inadvertently influenced the relationship between an employee's beliefs and coworker behaviors. Although caution should be taken when employing these findings to diverse groups, I do not believe this limits the applicability of my results. Much diversity research has focused on easily observable demographic characteristics, yet there are many forms of diversity that can potentially influence group processes (Klein & Harrison, 2007). Even in the relatively homogeneous population of my study, there still existed potential for groups to segregate based upon characteristics such as academic major or extracurricular interests. Furthermore, although there was limited diversity within my sample, the overall homogeneity may be indicative of typical work environments, with audit teams consisting mainly of accountants and university committees containing a disproportionally high number of PhDs.

Lastly, the main theoretical contribution of these investigations related to the separation of inflated self-views and entitlement, with an individual's inflated self-views being largely beneficial and entitlement being detrimental. It is likely that cultural factors may affect the applicability of these findings. Most of the participants in these studies came from individualistic cultures where helping behaviors are driven largely by predicted reciprocity (Perlow & Weeks, 2002). In collectivist cultures, where helping is expected but still considered largely altruistic, characteristics of the employee

receiving help may have less effect on coworker's behaviors. In addition, the divergent effects of inflated self-views and entitlement may be dependent upon an observer's ability to see these two views as distinct. Cultural beliefs may influence an observer's ability to accept an individual's inflated self-views as being discernable from his or her level of entitlement. For example, the Japanese translation of Maccoby's (2003) book "The Productive Narcissist" was instead entitled "Why Nasty Guys Advance in Their Careers" suggesting an inability for some cultures to recognize the positive contributions that may accrue from an employee's inflated self-views (Maccoby, 2007). As such, the cultural backgrounds reflected within a team may influence how coworkers respond to employees who demonstrate inflated self-views and/or high levels of entitlement. Future research should be encouraged to examine the applicability of these findings within different cultures and multicultural teams.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

In addition to contributing to the current literature, these studies have practical implication for organizations and society. In the recruiting process, indications of a potential employee's personality characteristics may be nearly as influential as their general mental ability (Dunn, Mount, Barrick, & Ones, 1995). Businesses may be tempted to similarly use indications of an individual's self-views as predictors of future success, and treat them as decision criteria when choosing whom to hire. While the idea of intentionally seeking overconfident employees may be counter-intuitive, my findings suggest a potential benefit that goes beyond the individual him or herself. At the same time, I suggest that any such actions be done with caution. Many of the existing tools related to an individual's inflated self-views also capture potentially damaging traits such as the individual's level of entitlement. Yet, this research gives hope that such tools can be developed.

This research can also directly benefit individuals who recognize their own egocentric tendencies. Today's college students, the new job seekers, often do not recognize the potential damage associated with focusing only on themselves (Twenge, 2006). This research shows, rather ironically,

that an individual's belief that they deserve special treatment can indirectly decrease the amount of assistance that they actually receive from others. By highlighting the immediate and very tangible consequences of demonstrated entitlement, individuals may recognize a need to buffer their own self-expression. At the same time, this research demonstrates the potential benefits from developing and maintaining an inflated view of ones own abilities.

Table 1: Summary of Results

		Lab	Field	Total
H1	*There will be a positive relationship between an employee's inflated self-views and the amount of information that coworkers share with the employee.*	No	Yes	
H2	*There will be a negative relationship between an employee's level of entitlement and the amount of information that coworkers share with the employee.*	No	No	✗
H3	*There will be a positive relationship between an employee's inflated self-views and the amount of help that coworkers give to the employee.*	No	No	✗
H4	*There will be a negative relationship between an employee's level of entitlement and the amount of help that coworkers give to the employee.*	Yes	No	
H5	*There will be a positive relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and coworker judgments of the employee's warmth.*	Opposite	Yes	
H6	*There will be a negative relationship between the employee's level of entitlement and coworker judgments of the employee's warmth.*	Yes	Yes	✔
H7	*There will be a positive relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and coworker judgments of the employee's competence.*	Yes	No	
H8	*There will be a negative relationship between the employee's level of entitlement and coworker judgments of the employee's competence.*	Yes	Yes	✔
H9a	*Perceptions of an employee's warmth will mediate the relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and a group member's willingness to share information with the employee.*	No	Yes	
H9b	*Perceptions of an employee's warmth will mediate the relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and a group member's willingness to help the employee.*	Yes	Yes	✔
H10a	*Perceptions of an employee's warmth will mediate the relationship between the employee's level of entitlement and a group member's willingness to share information with the employee.*	No	Yes	
H10b	*Perceptions of an employee's warmth will mediate the relationship between the employee's level of entitlement and a group member's willingness to help the employee.*	Yes	Yes	✔

Table 1 continued: Summary of Results

H11a	*Perceptions of an employee's competence will mediate the relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and a group member's willingness to share information with the employee.*	No	No	✗
H11b	*Perceptions of an employee's competence will mediate the relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and a group member's willingness to help the employee.*	Yes	No	
H12a	*Perceptions of an employee's competence will mediate the relationship between the employee's level of entitlement and a group member's willingness to share information with the employee.*	No	Yes	
H12b	*Perceptions of an employee's competence will mediate the relationship between the employee's level of entitlement and a group member's willingness to help the employee.*	Yes	Yes	✔
H13	*An employee's level of entitlement will be associated with a less positive relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and coworker judgments of the employee's warmth.*	No	No	✗
H14	*An employee's level of entitlement will be associated with a less positive relationship between the employee's inflated self-views and coworker judgments of the employee's competence.*	No	No	✗

Table 2: Lab Experiment Manipulation Development

Question 1: Effect on Perceived Overconfidence

Manipulation		Inflated Self-View High	Inflated Self-View Low	Entitlement High	Entitlement Low
No	Mean	2.71	3.22	2.80	3.22
	N	42	38	36	37
	Std. Dev.	1.00	1.14	1.12	1.09
Yes	Mean	4.25	2.27	3.42	2.36
	N	9	13	15	14
	Std. Dev.	.63	.61	.98	.93
Total	Mean	2.98	2.98	2.98	2.98
	N	51	51	51	51
	Std. Dev.	1.11	1.11	1.11	1.11
ANOVA	F	19.62	8.19	3.44	6.79
	Sig	.000	.006	.070	.012
	Eta Squared	.286	.143	.066	.122

Question 1: Effect on Perceived Entitlement

Manipulation		Inflated Self-View High	Inflated Self-View Low	Entitlement High	Entitlement Low
No	Mean	2.58	2.72	2.49	2.97
	N	35	37	41	37
	Std. Dev.	1.11	1.10	1.06	.98
Yes	Mean	2.93	2.58	3.58	1.88
	N	15	13	9	13
	Std. Dev.	.98	1.04	.57	.94
Total	Mean	2.69	2.69	2.69	2.69
	N	50	50	50	50
	Std. Dev.	1.07	1.07	1.07	1.07
ANOVA	F	1.15	.18	8.93	11.95
	Sig	.289	.678	.004	.001
	Eta Squared	.023	.004	.157	.199

Table 2 continued: Lab Experiment Manipulation Development

Question 2: Effect on Perceived Overconfidence

Manipulation		Inflated Self-View High	Inflated Self-View Low	Entitlement High	Entitlement Low
No	Mean	3.03	3.52	2.95	3.15
	N	43	42	47	45
	Std. Dev.	.99	.84	.97	1.04
Yes	Mean	3.48	2.25	3.98	3.18
	N	16	17	12	14
	Std. Dev.	.93	.70	.53	.83
Total	Mean	3.16	3.16	3.16	3.16
	N	59	59	59	59
	Std. Dev.	.98	.98	.98	.98
ANOVA	F	2.48	30.27	12.51	.01
	Sig	.121	.000	.001	.926
	Eta Squared	.042	.347	.180	.000

Question 2: Effect on Perceived Entitlement

Manipulation		Inflated Self-View High	Inflated Self-View Low	Entitlement High	Entitlement Low
No	Mean	2.69	2.87	2.55	3.17
	N	50	51	43	48
	Std. Dev.	1.27	1.14	1.18	1.19
Yes	Mean	3.32	2.27	3.39	1.80
	N	14	13	21	16
	Std. Dev.	1.08	.61	1.33	.74
Total	Mean	2.83	2.83	2.83	2.83
	N	64	64	64	64
	Std. Dev.	1.25	1.25	1.25	1.25
ANOVA	F	2.89	.315	7.02	18.68
	Sig	.094	.577	.010	.000
	Eta Squared	.045	.005	.102	.232

Table 2 continued: Lab Experiment Manipulation Development

Question 3: Effect on Perceived Overconfidence

Manipulation		Inflated Self-View High	Inflated Self-View Low	Entitlement High	Entitlement Low
No	Mean	2.65	3.14	2.68	2.98
	N	42	42	46	44
	Std. Dev.	1.15	1.04	1.19	1.07
Yes	Mean	3.41	2.13	3.56	2.48
	N	16	16	12	14
	Std. Dev.	.82	.97	.78	1.19
Total	Mean	2.86	2.86	2.86	2.86
	N	58	58	58	58
	Std. Dev.	1.11	1.11	1.11	1.11
ANOVA	F	5.73	11.49	6.59	2.20
	Sig	.020	.001	.013	.144
	Eta Squared	.093	.170	.105	.038

Question 3: Effect on Perceived Entitlement

Manipulation		Inflated Self-View High	Inflated Self-View Low	Entitlement High	Entitlement Low
No	Mean	2.74	3.09	2.66	3.20
	N	43	43	40	42
	Std. Dev.	1.19	1.15	1.11	1.13
Yes	Mean	3.54	2.38	3.58	2.11
	N	13	13	16	14
	Std. Dev.	.85	1.09	1.06	.87
Total	Mean	2.92	2.92	2.92	2.92
	N	56	56	56	56
	Std. Dev.	1.16	1.16	1.16	1.16
ANOVA	F	5.08	3.83	7.99	10.87
	Sig	.028	.055	.007	.002
	Eta Squared	.086	.066	.129	.168

Table 2 continued: Lab Experiment Manipulation Development

Question 4: Effect on Perceived Overconfidence

Manipulation		Inflated Self-View High	Inflated Self-View Low	Entitlement High	Entitlement Low
No	Mean	2.75	3.17	2.89	3.18
	N	50	42	50	50
	Std. Dev.	1.05	1.06	1.10	1.07
Yes	Mean	3.84	2.65	3.34	2.32
	N	14	22	14	14
	Std. Dev.	.72	1.07	.98	1.09
Total	Mean	2.99	2.99	2.99	2.99
	N	64	64	64	64
	Std. Dev.	1.09	1.09	1.09	1.09
ANOVA	F	13.12	3.42	1.90	7.45
	Sig	.001	.069	.173	.008
	Eta Squared	.175	.052	.030	.107

Question 4: Effect on Perceived Entitlement

Manipulation		Inflated Self-View High	Inflated Self-View Low	Entitlement High	Entitlement Low
No	Mean	2.57	2.76	2.60	3.14
	N	46	55	47	44
	Std. Dev.	1.12	1.11	.93	.93
Yes	Mean	3.26	2.75	3.22	1.93
	N	18	9	17	20
	Std. Dev.	.65	.60	1.26	.80
Total	Mean	2.76	2.76	2.76	2.76
	N	64	64	64	64
	Std. Dev.	1.05	1.05	1.05	1.05
ANOVA	F	6.18	.001	4.66	25.61
	Sig	.016	.972	.035	.000
	Eta Squared	.091	.000	.070	.292

Table 3: Lab Experiment Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Participant Age								
2 Participant Gender[a]	-.18**							
3 Inflated Self-View (0,1)	.00	.00						
4 Entitlement (0,1)	.00	.00	.00					
5 Warmth	-.03	-.09	-.24**	-.65**				
6 Competence	-.10*	-.08	.53**	-.24**	.15**			
7 Helping	.00	.00	.00	-.45**	.46**	.23**		
8 Information Sharing	-.15*	.17**	.01	-.03	.02	.03	.03	
Min	18.00	0.00	1.00	2.00	2.50	1.50	2.50	-.08
Max	34.00	1.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	.78
Mean	19.75	.46	4.58	4.71	5.53	4.76	5.13	.30
Standard Dev.	1.91	.50	1.34	.99	1.05	1.22	1.08	.16

[a] 0 = male, 1 = female

Note. N = 436 for 1-7; N=307 for 8

Table 4: Lab Experiment Specific Indirect Effects Using Bootstrapping

	Bootstrapping		95% Confidence Interval	
Indirect Effects	Effect	SE	Lower	Upper
Inflated Self-View ➔ Perceived Warmth ➔ Help Received	-.45	.11	-.67	-.27
Inflated Self-View ➔ Perceived Competence➔ Help Received	.43	.19	.05	.78
Entitlement ➔ Perceived Warmth ➔ Help Received	-1.23	.22	-1.68	-.81
Entitlement ➔ Perceived Competence➔ Help Received	-.20	.09	-.40	-.04

Note. $N = 436$

Table 5: Field Study Participants– Means, N, and Standard Deviations

In Final Sample		Gender	Age	Extra version	Agree ableness	Conscien tiousness	Emotional Stability	Openness	Accuracy OCQ150
No	Mean	.49	19.88	4.74	4.74	5.54	4.84	5.04	.31
	N	148	147	148	148	148	148	148	148
	Std. Dev.	.50	2.78	1.26	1.14	1.11	1.28	1.04	.18
Yes	Mean	.46	19.75	4.58	4.71	5.53	4.76	5.13	.30
	N	272	272	272	272	272	272	272	272
	Std. Dev.	.50	.191	1.34	.99	1.05	1.22	1.08	.16
Total	Mean	.47	19.80	4.63	4.72	5.53	4.79	5.10	.30
	N	420	419	420	420	420	419	420	420
	Std. Dev.	.50	2.25	.1.31	1.04	1.07	1.24	1.06	.17

In Final Sample		Inflated Self-View	Entitlement	Perceived Warmth	Perceived Competence	Help Received	Information Received
No	Mean	1.05	3.52	5.67	5.39	5.91	5.87
	N	148	148	176	176	144	144
	Std. Dev.	.40	1.13	.84	.89	.69	.77
Yes	Mean	1.09	3.37	5.71	5.58	5.92	5.90
	N	272	272	272	272	272	272
	Std. Dev.	.38	.97	.62	.57	.47	.51
Total	Mean	1.08	3.42	5.70	5.50	5.92	5.89
	N	420	420	448	448	416	416
	Std. Dev.	.39	1.03	.71	.72	.56	.61

Table 6: Field Study Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Age											
2 Gender[a]	-.16*										
3 Extraversion	-.06	.01									
4 Agreeableness	-.02	.08	-.05								
5 Conscientiousness	-.03	.20**	.17**	.19**							
6 Emotional Stability	-.06	-.14**	.02	.21**	.20**						
7 Openness	.04	.05	.33**	.11	.16**	.20**					
8 Accuracy	.02	.09	-.10	.04	.13*	.15*	.02				
9 Inflated Self-View	-.03	-.18**	.03	-.06	-.20**	-.05	.01	-.65**			
10 Entitlement	.07	-.05	.04	-.13*	-.14*	-.10	-.06	-.16**	.11		
11 Narcissism	-.05	-.12	-.18**	-.07	.01	.01	.10	-.24**	.15*	.38**	
12 Perceived Warmth	.04	-.05	.26**	-.06	.17**	.10	.12	.09	.01	-.17**	.02
13 Perceived Competence	.12*	.03	-.11	.13*	.13*	.02	-.09	-.01	.01	-.137*	-.06
14 Help Received	.16**	-.04	-.04	.00	.11	.09	.03	-.03	.05	-.00	.02
15 Information Received	.13*	.00	-.02	-.01	.10	.17**	-.01	-.02	.09	-.02	-.02
Min	18.00	0.00	1.00	2.00	2.50	1.50	2.50	-.08	.28	1.00	1.00
Max	34.00	1.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	.78	2.00	6.22	6.36
Mean	19.75	.46	4.58	4.71	5.53	4.76	5.13	.30	1.09	3.37	3.61
Standard Dev.	1.91	.50	1.34	.99	1.05	1.22	1.08	.16	.38	.97	1.15

[a] 0 = male, 1 = female

Note. $N = 272$

Table 6 continued: Field Study Independent Variable Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

		12	13	14	15
12	Perceived Warmth				
13	Perceived Competence	.40**			
14	Help Received	.30**	.44**		
15	Information Received	.44**	.44**	.71**	
	Min	3.65	3.50	4.33	3.92
	Max	7.00	6.83	7.00	7.00
	Mean	5.71	5.58	5.92	5.90
	Standard Dev.	.62	.57	.47	.51

Note. $N = 272$

Table 7: Field Study Warmth and Competence Regressions

	Perceived Warmth		Perceived Competence	
Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Intercept	4.444*** (.489)	4.446*** (.555)	4.524*** (.457)	4.624*** (.526)
Control Variables				
Age	.016 (.019)	.022 (.019)	.040* (.018)	.043* (.018)
Gender[a]	-.077 (.077)	-.057 (.076)	.030 (.072)	.037 (.072)
Extraversion	.111*** (.029)	.118*** (.029)	-.037 (.028)	-.033 (.027)
Agreeableness	-.054 (.038)	-.062 (.038)	.060 (.036)	.054 (.036)
Conscientiousness	.078* (.037)	.077* (.037)	.076* (.035)	.072* (.035)
Emotional Stability	.035 (.032)	.030 (.032)	.006 (.030)	.004 (.030)
Openness	.007 (.037)	-.003 (.036)	-.055 (.034)	-.060† (.034)
Accuracy	.345 (.226)	.598* (.292)	-.156 (.211)	-.102 (.276)
Independent Variables				
Inflated Self-View		.227† (.126)		.075 (.119)
Entitlement		-.108** (.038)		-.074* (.036)

[a] 0 = male, 1 = female

Note. $N = 272$. Unstandardized coefficients are reported, with standard errors in parentheses.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 7 continued: Field Study Help Received and Information Received Regressions

	Help Received from Peers		Information Received from Peers	
Variables	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8
Intercept	4.878*** (.385)	4.694*** (.445)	4.790*** (.413)	4.419*** (.475)
Control Variables				
Age	.040** (.015)	.041* (.015)	.042* (.016)	.044** (.016)
Gender[a]	-.014 (.061)	-.006 (.061)	.052 (.065)	.070 (.065)
Extraversion	-.021 (.023)	-.020 (.023)	-.009 (.025)	-.007 (.025)
Agreeableness	-.016 (.030)	-.015 (.030)	-.034 (.032)	-.033 (.032)
Conscientiousness	.054† (.029)	.058† (.030)	.044 (.031)	.052 (.032)
Emotional Stability	.033 (.025)	.031 (.025)	.083** (.027)	.079** (.027)
Openness	.005 (.029)	.004 (.029)	-.025 (.031)	-.030 (.031)
Accuracy	-.181 (.178)	-.036 (.234)	-.202 (.191)	.116 (.250)
Independent Variables				
Inflated Self-View		.098 (.101)		.220* (.108)
Entitlement		.000 (.030)		-.010 (.032)

[a] 0 = male, 1 = female

Note. $N = 272$. Unstandardized coefficients are reported, with standard errors in parentheses.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 8: Field Study Specific Indirect Effects Using Bootstrapping

	Bootstrapping		95% Confidence Interval	
Indirect Effects	Effect	SE	Lower	Upper
Inflated Self-View ➔ Perceived Warmth ➔ Help Received	.027	.019	.000	.079
Inflated Self-View ➔ Perceived Competence➔ Help Received	.023	.041	-.056	.108
Inflated Self-View ➔ Perceived Warmth ➔ Information Received	.064	.038	.002	.150
Inflated Self-View ➔ Perceived Competence➔ Information Received	.019	.038	-.041	.095
Entitlement ➔ Perceived Warmth ➔ Help Received	-.013	.008	-.035	-.002
Entitlement ➔ Perceived Competence➔ Help Received	-.022	.013	-.053	-.002
Entitlement ➔ Perceived Warmth ➔ Information Received	-.031	.013	-.061	-.010
Entitlement ➔ Perceived Competence➔ Information Received	-.019	.010	-.045	-.003

Note. $N = 272$.

Table 9: Field Study Warmth and Competence Regression w/ Narcissism

	Perceived Warmth		Perceived Competence	
Variables	Model	Model	Model	Model
Intercept	4.482*** (.509)	4.364*** (.563)	4.612*** (.475)	4.671*** (.534)
Control Variables				
Age	.016 (.019)	.023 (.019)	.039* (.018)	.043* (.018)
Gender[a]	-.079 (.078)	-.049 (.077)	.026 (.073)	.039 (.073)
Extraversion	.112*** (.030)	.115*** (.029)	-.035 (.028)	-.034 (.028)
Agreeableness	-.055 (.039)	-.061 (.038)	.059 (.036)	.054 (.036)
Conscientiousness	.078* (.037)	.074* (.037)	.077* (.035)	.072* (.035)
Emotional Stability	.035 (.032)	.029 (.032)	.007 (.030)	.004 (.030)
Openness	.008 (.037)	-.006 (.036)	-.054 (.034)	-.061† (.035)
Accuracy	.330 (.233)	.642* (.296)	-.183 (.217)	-.090 (.281)
Independent Variables				
Narcissism	-.009 (.033)	.032 (.035)	-.017 (.031)	.009 (.034)
Inflated Self-View		.230† (.126)		.076 (.119)
Entitlement		-.122** (.041)		-.078* (.038)

[a] 0 = male, 1 = female

Note. $N = 272$. Unstandardized coefficients are reported, with standard errors in parentheses.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 9 continued: Field Study Help Received and Information Received Regression w/ Narcissism

	Perceived Help Received		Perceived Information Received	
Variables	Model	Model	Model	Model
Intercept	4.856*** (.400)	4.677*** (.452)	4.835*** (.429)	4.437*** (.482)
Control Variables				
Age	.041** (.015)	.042** (.015)	.042* (.016)	.044** (.016)
Gender[a]	-.013 (.061)	-.005 (.062)	.049 (.066)	.068 (.066)
Extraversion	-.022 (.023)	-.021 (.023)	-.008 (.025)	-.006 (.025)
Agreeableness	-.016 (.030)	-.015 (.030)	-.034 (.032)	-.033 (.032)
Conscientiousness	.054† (.029)	.057† (.030)	.045 (.032)	.053 (.032)
Emotional Stability	.033 (.025)	.031 (.026)	.083** (.027)	.080** (.027)
Openness	.005 (.029)	.003 (.029)	-.024 (.031)	-.029 (.031)
Accuracy	-.173 (.183)	-.027 (.238)	-.220 (.196)	.106 (.254)
Independent Variables				
Narcissism	.005 (.026)	.007 (.028)	-.011 (.028)	-.007 (.030)
Inflated Self-View		.098 (.101)		.219* (.108)
Entitlement		-.003 (.033)		-.007 (.035)

[a] 0 = male, 1 = female
Note. $N = 272$. Unstandardized coefficients are reported, with standard errors in parentheses.
† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 9 continued: Field Study Help Received and Information Received Regression w/ Narcissism

	Bootstrapping		95% Confidence Interval	
Indirect Effects	Effect	SE	Lower	Upper
Narcissism ➔ Perceived Warmth ➔ Help Received	-.001	.004	-.012	.006
Narcissism ➔ Perceived Competence➔ Help Received	-.005	.009	-.025	.012
Narcissism ➔ Perceived Warmth ➔ Information Received	-.003	.010	-.023	.015
Narcissism ➔ Perceived Competence➔ Information Received	-.004	.007	-.021	.009

Note. $N = 272$.

Appendix A: Participant Documentation and Lab Study Manipulation

General Instructions

It is common practice for employees to work on projects with people they have either never met or with whom they have had only brief interactions. In many cases employees are located in distant parts of the country or world and may never have a face-to-face conversation. This lack of physical contact has a number of detrimental consequences for both decision-making and implementation tasks.

In this study, each team member has an opportunity to communicate information about themselves to their teammates prior to beginning a team task. This communication will occur through the creation of a social networking profile. We will then investigate the effect of the profile on the team's ability to perform different types of tasks.

Detailed Instruction (C -2)

This study will take approximately one hour to complete and will go as follows.

1. You will be given 10 minutes to create a Facebook style profile by answering questions about your interests and experience.
2. You will be given 15 minutes completing a practice exercise related to a later group assignment. This exercise entails reviewing an article about a current event on campus and highlighting portions of the document to be edited.
3. You will spend 5 minutes "getting acquainted" with your team by reviewing each team member's profile sheet.
4. You will spend approximately 10 minutes completing an online survey while the rest of your team members complete their earlier tasks.
5. You will have 15 minutes to read each team member's analysis of the practice exercies
6. You will be given one or more tasks to complete as a team.

Social Networking Profile Template

For the purpose of this study you will share only the information requested on the following page of this template.

At the bottom of this page you are asked to enter your Subject ID and computer number. This information will be used for tracking purposes only and will not be shared with the other members of your team.

On the following page you will be asked to respond to a series of questions. Please be completely honest in how you answer each question. Whenever possible, please avoid disclosing information that could indicate your age, race, gender, national origin, or other demographic factors unnecessary for answering the questions.

Once you have completed the profile template on the following page, please print the document. You should then begin the Individual Editing Task while the experimenter copies and collates your group responses.

Subject ID:

_____

Computer #:

_____

Please answer each of the 4 questions below in the space provided.
Note: Maximum answer length is 200 characters (approximately 2-3 sentences).

Question 1: Your best friend entered you into a local curling competition. Describe your expectations related to the competition. (Note: Curling is an Olympic sport where players slide round stones across ice while their teammates decrease the friction of the ice through sweeping in front of the sliding stone.)

Answer 1:

_____
_____
_____

Question 2: What would you do if you won $1 Million dollars in the lottery?

Answer 2:

_____
_____
_____

Question 3: Imagine that you are in high school. You show up to class and there is a pop quiz. Unfortunately you read the wrong chapter. What do you do?

Answer 3:

_____
_____
_____

Question 4: A local grocery store is sponsoring a group of middle school kids who are raising money to go on a field trip to the Alamo (San Antonio, TX). For $5 you can test your skill at a trivia game. Anyone who beats the game will receive a $50 grocery card. Do you play the game? Why or Why not?

Answer 4:

_____
_____
_____

Once all questions have been answered please this document. Then minimize Word before beginning the individual editing task.

Manipulation

Question 1: Your best friend entered you into a local curling competition. In 1-2 sentences please describe your expectations. (Note: Curling is an Olympic sport where you slide round stones across ice while your teammates decrease the friction of the ice through sweeping in front of the stone.)

Inflated Self-View High
Answer: It doesn't seem to be a very difficult game, so I should be able to do really well. I'm a fast learner, especially when it comes to sports.

Answer: I have played a lot more demanding sports than this, and I am sure I can pick up the strategy quickly. I'm not saying that I will single handedly carry the team, but am positive I will be able to hold my own even against experienced players.

Inflated Self-View Low
Answer: I haven't really spent much time on the ice. Curling is an Olympic sport, which is more than a little intimidating. That said, I would still give it a try.

Answer: I have never even heard of curling before, so I doubt I would be worth much for the team. I'm not really a sports person.

Entitlement High
Answer: I just hope that the rest of my team is decent so that I don't look foolish out there. I deserve to be on a good team.

Answer: My friend is the one who entered us in the competition, so I would expect him to make sure that it wasn't a miserable experience for me.

Entitlement Low
Answer: All that really matters is that everyone on the team has a fun time.

Answer: The most important thing is that I am helping a friend. It doesn't matter whether or not I am any good at curling, sometimes you have to suck it up and do something you may not like in order to help your friends.

Manipulation

Question 2: What would you do if you won $1 Million dollars in the lottery?

Inflated Self-View High
Answer: I would invest the $1Million into the stock market. It takes money to make money. If I had that much to start with I could do a lot of day-trading and be set for life.

Answer: I have this creative flare that most people don't understand. With $1M I could start my own business making and distributing custom shirts for concerts like SXSW.

Inflated Self-View Low
Answer: I don't know much about investing, so I would just put the money into something conservative. I don't want to screw up and lose it.

Answer: I'm admittedly not very good with money, I would probably blow some of it before one of my parents would force me to get a financial advisor.

Entitlement High
Answer: I would buy some toys for myself like a boat, a new pair of hiking boots, a new watch. I would obviously buy a big house (by the water) and hire a maid. After living in a dorm room for three years I deserve a nice place to live.

Answer: I would finally get all the things I deserve from life.

Entitlement Low
Answer: My older brother is about to lose his business. If I I brought in some money I think he could turn it around. This would mean a lot to my family and especially my parents.

Answer: There is this micro-financing thing in Africa where women receive loans in order to start their own businesses. I would want to share in whatever way I could.

Manipulation

Question 3: Imagine that you are in high school. You show up to class and there is a pop quiz. Unfortunately you read the wrong chapter. What do you do?

Inflated Self-View High
Answer: I guess I would just have to pull off one of my standard miracles. I don't know how, but when this used to happen to me it never ended up being an issue.

Answer: I always found pop quizzes in high school to be really easy so it wouldn't be an issue. (I guess I just have a Big Brain)

Inflated Self-View Low
Answer: I don't know how I would do on the quiz, probably not very good, but I would push just have to push through it.

Answer: I would be totally screwed.

Entitlement High
Answer: It wouldn't be fair for me to have to take the quiz. I would tell the teacher what happened and she would make some sort of exception.

Answer: Who knows how I'd do on the "pop quiz", but if I bombed then I could just tell the teacher what happened and I would expect her to be flexible. At the very least I should be allowed to retake the quiz for partial credit.

Entitlement Low
Answer: When I screw up it isn't anyone's responsibility but my own. I would take the quiz and live with the consequences.

Answer: Rather than ask for any special treatment, I would just do my best. If the quiz counted for a lot of my grade I might beg for the opportunity to do extra credit but this would be at the teacher's discretion. It was my mistake.

Manipulation

Question 4: A local grocery store is sponsoring a group of middle school kids who are raising money to go on a field trip to the Alamo (San Antonio, TX). For $5 you can test your skill at a trivia game. Anyone who beats the game will receive a $50 grocery card. Do you play the game? Why or Why not?

Inflated Self-View High
Answer: Not a question – YES. Even if I didn't win I am sure I would be one of the top contenders.

Answer: I would do it both for the challenge and to show off what I know.

Inflated Self-View Low
Answer: NO. The questions are probably hard and I'm not very good at trivia.

Answer: Probably… I am not really a trivia person, I'm actually really bad at most game show type games in general, but if it were right there I would likely do it.

Entitlement High
Answer: No. I am not going to waste MY $5. My parents always paid for my field trips and I would expect their parents to do the same.

Answer: Yes. Even if I didn't win I would expect them to give me some sort of recognition. I deserve to at least get my name on the wall or something.

Entitlement Low
Answer: Yes. The money goes to a good cause. The Alamo is a great historic site and everyone should have the opportunity to visit it at least once.

Answer: Definitely – It sounds like a fun way to raise money. Even if I won I wouldn't take the $50. When I help out a charity I don't need anything in return and the kids need all they can get.

Executive Summary for GCS

Graduate Coaching Services (GCS) will provide top-quality professional development and coaching services to college seniors and recent college graduates attempting to start their own businesses. The principal officer of GCS believes that most young entrepreneurs suffer two major problems: they lack training or development resources and the depth of knowledge needed to focus on their businesses from a true "ownership" perspective. Both lead to lowered expectations, lack of business and personal growth and frequent owner burnout. I believe that it can improve upon and exploit these weaknesses to gain local market share.

GCS offers young entrepreneurs a reliable, high-quality resource for business coaching, and professional and management development on both a local and national scale. Its mission is to help clients develop the strategy, motivation and accountability required to succeed in their business and personal lives. The company sees each contract as an agreement, not between a business and its customers, but between partners who wish to create close and mutually beneficial long-term relationship. This will likely help to provide greater long-term profits through referrals and repeat business. GCS must also be able to maintain financial balance, charging a high value for its services, and delivering an even higher value to its clients.

The company will provide its professional development services in the most effective manner and with an ongoing comprehensive quality-control program to provide 100% client satisfaction. The companys principal officer sees each contract as an agreement not between a business and its clients, but between partners who wish to create a close and mutually-beneficial long-term relationship. This will help to provide greater long-term profits through referrals and repeat business.

Group #

What do you think of this idea?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Who should ultimately pay for this service?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Business Plan Comments / Manipulation Reinforcement

Comment 1: What do you think of this idea?

Inflated Self-View High
I don't think I would ever need these services. I know what I would need to in order to start a business.

The basic idea isn't bad, but if I thought about this some more I am sure I could come up with additional services and make a lot of money off a business like this.

Inflated Self-View Low
It sounds like a very ambitious proposal. I don't think I could manage anything like this personally.

I don't think I am smart enough to really understand the whole picture here.

Comment 2: Who should ultimately pay for this service?

Entitlement High
I would expect either UT or my department to already provide this service for me. If not, then I would want my parents to cover it as part of my education.

This is definitely something that the university should be paying for me to receive. I pay tuition for a reason and I don't think I should have to pay extra to get it somewhere else.

Entitlement Low
The person receiving help should pay for it. If I wanted these services then I would expect to pay for it myself.

Anyone using the service should pay for it. Nothing is free, and I don't think it should be.

Appendix B: Field Study Scales and Measures

THE OVER-CLAIMING TECHNIQUE

Paulhus, D.L., Harms, P. D., Bruce, M.N., & Lysy, D.C. (2003). The over-claiming technique: Measuring self-enhancement independent of ability. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 84*, 890-904.

Paulhus, D.L., & Harms, P.D. (2004). Measuring cognitive ability with the over-claiming technique. *Intelligence, 32*, 297-314.

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

These instructions apply to all versions of the over-claiming questionnaire and any other instrument using the technique. Participants are asked to rate their familiarity with a large set of items, some of which are non-existent. The instrument can be scored for knowledge accuracy and for the tendency to over-claim.

OCQ 150

D.L. Paulhus

Version 2005.1

PLEASE RATE YOUR FAMILIARITY WITH EACH ITEM BY CIRCLING THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER FROM 0 TO 4.

0	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
Never heard of it		**Somewhat familiar**		**Very familiar**

EXAMPLES

1. If you're asked about POLITICIANS and the item said "Bill Clinton", you would probably circle **'3' or '4'** to indicate that you are familiar with him.

2. If the category was FAMOUS ATHLETES and the item said "Fred Gruneberg", you would probably circle '**0**' because you have never heard of him or a '**1**' because he sounds vaguely familiar.

Historical Names and Events	**Fine Arts**
1. Napoleon	16. Mozart
2. Robespierre	17. a cappella
3. El Puente	**18. Pullman paintings**
4. My Lai	19. art deco
5. The Lusitania	20. Paul Gauguin
6. Ronald Reagan	21. Mona Lisa
7. Prince Lorenzo	**22. La Neige Jaune**
8. The Luddites	23. Mario Lanza
9. Neville Chamberlain	24. Verdi
10. Vichy Government	25. Vermeer
11. Queen Shattuck	**26. Jackson Howell**
12. Bay of Pigs	27. Grand Pooh Bah
13. Torquemada	28. Botticelli
14. Wounded Knee	29. harpsichord
15. Clara Barton	30. dramatis personae

Note: For the purpose of this document the three foil items in each category have been **bolded**. These items are not visibly distinguishable from the true items in the testing procedure.

Language.	**Books and Poems**
31. subjunctive	46. Antigone
32. hyperbole	**47. Murphy's Last Ride**
33. alliteration	48. Catcher in the Rye
34. sentence stigma	49. The Bible
35. euphemism	50. Hiawatha
36. double entendre	**51. Trapnell Meets Katz**
37. blank verse	52. Mein Kampf
38. pseudo-verb	53. The Aeneid
39. ampersand	54. Faustus
40. myth	55. The Boy Who Cried Wolf
41. aphorism	56. Pygmalion
42. shunt-word	57. Hickory Dickory Dock
43. simile	58. The Divine Comedy
44. acronym	**59. Windermere Wild**
45. synonym	60. The Raven

Authors and Characters	**Social Science and Law**
61. Adonis	76. yellow journalism
62. Mephistopheles	77. angst
63. Shylock	78. nationalism
64. Ancient Mariner	**79. megaphrenia**
65. Doctor Fehr	80. acrophobia
66. Venus	**81. pulse tax**
67. Romeo and Juliet	82. pork-barreling
68. Bulldog Graziano	83. prejudice
69. Norman Mailer	84. Christian Science
70. Horatio Alger	85. ombudsman
71. Charlotte Bronte	**86. consumer apparatus**
72. Artemis	87. superego
73. Lewis Carroll	88. trust-busting
74. Admiral Broughton	89. behaviorism
75. Mrs. Malaprop	90. Oedipus complex

Physical Sciences	**Life Sciences**
91. Manhattan Project	106. mammal
92. planets	107. adrenal gland
93. nuclear fusion	108. sciatica
94. cholarine	109. insulin
95. atomic number	**110. meta-toxins**
96. hydroponics	111. intestine
97. alloy	**112. bio-sexual**
98. plate tectonics	113. meiosis
99. photon	114. ribonucleic acid
100. ultra-lipid	115. electrocardiograph
101. centripetal force	116. amniotic sac
102. plates of parallax	117. hemoglobin
103. nebula	**118. retroplex**
104. particle accelerator	119. antigen
105. satellite	120. recessive trait

Century Culture Names	**Philosophy**
121. Gail Brennan	**136. logistic heresy**
122. Jackie Robinson	137. creationism
123. Houdini	138. Goedel's theorem
124. Ginger Rogers	139. social constructionism
125. Greta Garbo	**140. Platonic sense**
126. Dale Carnegie	141. hermeneutics
127. Scott Joplin	**142. esoteric deduction**
128. Rube Goldberg	143. ghost in the machine
129. George Gershwin	144. Hegel
130. Mae West	145. Socrates
131. Jesse Owens	146. categorical imperative
132. Oliver Marjorie	147. free will
133. Louis Lapointe	148. Ayn Rand
134. King Kong	149. situational ethics
135. P.T. Barnum	150. Principia Mathematica

OCQ-150 SCORING PROCEDURE

The following items are foils, that is, non-existent items.

3, 7, 11, 18, 22, 26, 34, 38, 42, 47, 51, 59, 65, 68, 74, 79,

81, 86, 94, 100, 102, 110, 112, 118, 121, 132, 133, 136, 140, 142.

Formulas

There are a number of statistical techniques for scoring the ACCURACY Index and the BIAS Index. All are detailed in:

> Macmillan, N. A., & Creelman, C. D. (1991). *Detection theory: A user's guide*. New York: Cambridge.

One simple technique is to use commonsense formulas.

1. Calculate proportion of hits (number of real items that were given a higher rating than '0').
2. Calculate proportion of false alarms (number of foils that were given a higher rating than '0').
3. Calculate ACCURACY = P(HITS) – P(FALSE ALARMS)
4. Calculate BIAS = P(HITS) + P(FALSE ALARMS)

Consult the following articles for details about the performance of the academic OCQ under various conditions.

> Paulhus, D.L., Harms, P. D., Bruce, M.N., & Lysy, D.C. (2003). The over-claiming technique: Measuring self-enhancement independent of ability. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 84*, 890-904.

> Paulhus, D.L., & Harms, P.D. (2004). Measuring cognitive ability with the over-claiming technique. *Intelligence, 32*, 297-314.

From Paulhus's personal website
Last updated May 2007.

Macmillan (1991)

TABLE 1.1 *Formulas for Spreadsheet (Excel) Calculation of SDT Statistics With Examples*

	A (Labels Only)	*Formula (for Column B; Then Copy to C and Other Columns)*	*B (Set 1)*	*C (Set 2)*
1	# hits		10	9
2	# misses		0	1
3	# false alarms		2	0
4	# correct rejections		8	10
5	*H* (hit rate)	=IF(B2>0, B1/(B1+B2), (B1−0.5)/(B1+B2))	.950	.900
6	*F* (false-alarm rate)	=IF(B3>0, B3/(B3+B4), 0.5/(B3+B4))	.200	.050
7	*z(H)*	=NORMSINV(B5)	1.645	1.282
8	*z(F)*	=NORMSINV(B6)	−0.842	−1.645
9	*d'*	=B7−B8	2.486	2.926
10	*c*	=−0.5*(B7+B8)	−0.402	0.182
11	*β*	=EXP(B9*B10)	0.368	1.702

Narcissistic Grandiosity Scale

Rosenthal, S. A., Hooley, J. M., & Steshenko, Y. (2007). *Distinguishing grandiosity from self-esteem: Development of the Narcissistic Grandiosity Scale*. Manuscript in preparation.

Rosenthal, S. A., Hooley, J. M., & Steshenko, Y. (2003, February). *Distinguishing Grandiosity From Self-Esteem: Development of the State-Trait Grandiosity Scale*. Poster Session Presented at the Fourth Annual Meeting of the Society For Personality and Social Psychology, Los Angeles, CA.

Rosenthal, S. A. (2005). The fine line between confidence and arrogance: Investigating the relationship of self-esteem to narcissism. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 66* (05), 2868B. (UMI No. 3174022)

Narcissistic Grandiosity Scale (NaGS)
Rosenthal, Hooley, & Steshenko (2007)

INSTRUCTIONS: This scale consists of a number of words and phrases that describe different personal qualities. Read each item and then circle the appropriate answer to indicate to what extent each word describes you *in general*, that is, *on the average.* Use the following scale to record your answers:

1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 . . . . . 6 7
Not at all Extremely

1. Perfect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	9. Prestigious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.Extraordinary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	10. Acclaimed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Superior	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	11. Prominent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Heroic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	12. High-Status	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Omnipotent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	13. Brilliant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Unrivalled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	14. Dominant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Authoritative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	15. Envied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Glorious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	16. Powerful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Psychological Entitlement Scale

Campbell, W. K., A. M. Bonacci, et al. (2004). "Psychological entitlement: Interpersonal consequences and validation of a self-report measure." Journal of Personality Assessment **83**(1): 29-45.

Please respond to the following items using the number that best reflects your own beliefs.

Please use the following 7-point scale:
1 = strong disagreement.
2 = moderate disagreement.
3 = slight disagreement.
4 = neither agreement nor disagreement.
5 = slight agreement.
6 = moderate agreement.
7 = strong agreement.

1. I honestly feel I'm just more deserving than others.
2. Great things should come to me.
3. If I were on the Titanic, I would deserve to be on the *first* lifeboat!
4. I demand the best because I'm worth it.
5. I do not necessarily deserve special treatment.
6. I deserve more things in my life.
7. People like me deserve an extra break now and then.
8. Things should go my way.
9. I feel entitled to more of everything.

Perceptions of Warmth and Competence

There are many variations in the language used to determine perceptions of an individual's warmth and competence. A recent analysis conducted by Abele and colleagues reduced a set of 304 common trait words to 69 potentially related to agency or communion. They then analyzed the usage of these words across 5 countries to determine which had the most consistent meaning for global research.

Abele, A. E., M. Uchronski, et al. (2008). "Towards an operationalization of the fundamental dimensions of agency and communion: Trait content ratings in five countries considering valence and frequency of word occurrence." European Journal of Social Psychology **38**(7): 1202-1217.

Table 6. The final item sets

Item	Agency *M*	Communion *M*	Valence *M*
Agentic words			
Able	1.88	.62	2.36
Active	2.48	1.54	2.22
Assertive	2.63	.18	1.79
Creative	1.28	.75	1.93
Independent	2.71	−.94	1.99
Intelligent	2.00	.78	2.41
Rational	1.58	.58	1.46
Self-reliant	2.68	−.68	1.83
Communal words			
Caring	−.38	2.22	2.00
Helpful	−.52	2.64	2.25
Loyal	.01	2.39	2.50
Polite	.15	1.87	1.98
Sensitive	−.84	1.47	1.27
Sympathetic	−.75	2.22	1.67
Trustworthy	.74	2.10	2.49
Understanding	−.13	2.37	2.09
Lack of agency			
Insecure	−1.53	−.43	−1.36
Lazy	−2.37	−1.17	−1.89
Shy	−2.00	−.71	−.64
Vulnerable	−1.87	−.02	−.86
Lack of communion			
Conceited	1.02	−1.86	−2.25
Dominant	2.59	−1.55	−.43
Egoistic	1.33	−2.35	−1.98
Hardhearted	.99	−2.00	−1.78

Means across all samples. *Note*: Scales ranged from −3 to +3.

Helping Behavior

Podsakoff, P. M., M. Ahearne, et al. (1997). "Organizational citizenship behavior and the quantity and quality of work group performance." Journal of Applied Psychology **82**(2): 262-270.

Original Scale

Members of my team:

1. Help each other out if someone falls behind in his/her work.
2. Willingly share their expertise with other member of the team.
3. Try to act like peacemakers when other team members have disagreements.
4. Take steps to try to prevent problems with other team members.
5. Willingly give of their time to help team members who have work-related problems.
6. "Touch base" with other team members before initiating actions that might affect them.
7. Encourage each other when someone is down.

Modified Scale used in this study

1. I am willing to help X if he/she falls behind in his/her work.
2. I am willing to take steps to try to prevent X from having problems
3. I would willingly give my time to help X with work-related problems.
4. I would encourage X if he/she were feeling down.

Information Sharing

Bunderson, J. S. and K. M. Sutcliffe (2002). "Comparing alternative conceptualizations of functional diversity in management teams: Process and performance effects." Academy of Management Journal **45**(5): 875-893.

Original Scale

1. Information used to make key decisions was freely shared among the members of the team
2. Team members worked hard to keep one another up to date on their activities
3. Team members were kept "in the loop" about key issues affecting the business unit

Modified Scale used in this study

1. I shared information with X that was used to make key decisions
2. I worked hard to keep X up to date on my project activities
3. I kept X "in the loop" about key issues affecting our project

Big 5 Personality Traits

(Gosling, S. D., Rentfrow, P. J., & Swann, W. B., Jr. (2003). A Very Brief Measure of the Big Five Personality Domains. Journal of Research in Personality, 37, 504-528.)

Please respond to the following items using the number that best reflects your own beliefs.

Please use the following 7-point scale:
1 = strong disagreement.
2 = moderate disagreement.
3 = slight disagreement.
4 = neither agreement nor disagreement.
5 = slight agreement.
6 = moderate agreement.
7 = strong agreement.

1. I see myself as extraverted, enthusiastic.
2. I see myself as critical, quarrelsome.
3. I see myself as dependable, self-disciplined.
4. I see myself as anxious, easily upset.
5. I see myself as open to new experiences, complex.
6. I see myself as reserved, quiet.
7. I see myself as sympathetic, warm.
8. I see myself as disorganized, careless.
9. I see myself as calm, emotionally stable.
10. I see myself as conventional, uncreative.

Self-monitoring (T/F)

Gangestad, S., & Snyder, M. (1985, July). 'To carve nature at its joints': On the existence of discrete classes in personality. *Psychological Review*, *92*(3), 317-349.

1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people. (F)
2. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like. (F)
3. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe. (F)
4. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information. (T)
5. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others. (T)
6. I would probably make a good actor. (T)
7. In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention. (F)
8. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons. (T)
9. I am not particularly good at making other people like me. (F)
10. I'm not always the person I appear to be. (T)
11. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor. (F)
12. I have considered being an entertainer. (T)
13. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting. (F)
14. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations. (F)
15. At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going. (F)
16. I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should. (F)
17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end). (T)
18. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them. (T)

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